

THE SCHOOL REVIEW

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Educational News and Editorial Comment

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SHOULD WE HAVE BRANCH COLLEGES OR JUNIOR COLLEGES?

SELDOM, if ever, has the passing of an American educator been followed by so widespread and sincere an expression of regret in school circles as was the death in the early autumn of Lotus Delta Coffman, for the preceding eighteen years president of the University of Minnesota. Hardly an important educational meeting with national representation has failed to give a place in its proceedings to recognition of his going, and few educational periodicals have failed to review, in some part at least, his life and achievements. It takes more than charm of personality, of which he had a great deal, to explain the impressive accolade accorded Dr. Coffman; this quality would need, and had in him, the accompaniment of superlative creativity in the profession in which he had cast his lot.

It was inevitable that the University of Minnesota and the state which it serves should make much of Coffman's passing. Among the many tributes originating in these sources is a commemorative booklet issued by the University of Minnesota, which bears the title *Freedom through Education*. Most of the space in the booklet is occupied by the portion of the biennial report for 1936-38 of the president of the University which Coffman had personally prepared and to which is assigned, because of the issues that it considers, the

title borne by the booklet. The brochure contains, besides, an unfinished address planned for delivery at the opening convocation of the academic year 1938-39. Coffman's successor to the presidency, Guy Stanton Ford, in his letter "to the People of Minnesota" transmitting the brochure, says quite fittingly, "Here we give voice to his thinking in the full faith that the works of men who are really builders are the reflection of their thinking." It includes also an excellent halftone of Coffman (as frontispiece), an imposing bibliography of his writings during the period of his presidency, and a resolution concerning him adopted by the Board of Regents of the University.

Although any part of the two writings by Coffman in the booklet is quotable, perhaps certain paragraphs bearing on the junior college are more significant than others for readers of the *School Review*. The first portion is headed "Branch College Movement."

I wish now to turn to a more immediate problem, but one related to all that I have said thus far. Many bills affecting the university were introduced into the 1937 sessions of the legislature. Several of them proposed the establishment of branch universities. One of them envisaged an organization for Duluth that would include a three-year arts and science college, a school of education, perhaps a school of commerce, and a school of music and forensics. It also provided that the other teachers' colleges of the state might be incorporated as branches of the university. Another bill called for appropriations for the establishment of a branch junior college in association with the School of Agriculture at Crookston. And there were movements looking toward the establishment of a branch of the School of Mines and Metallurgy at Hibbing and a branch of the Division of Forestry somewhere on the range.

All of these proposals represented a movement to decentralize the university. They arose partly out of the desire to make education more universal and more easily accessible and partly to provide a form of employment for unemployed youth near home. Local interests and local pride may, of course, have had something to do with the effort to establish new schools at state expense. It is fortunate both for the university and for the state that none of these bills was enacted.

Because interest in the branch university movement has been widespread and its objective is still believed by many to be desirable and because the dismemberment of the university would be fraught with serious consequences, it is important that the subject receive more than casual consideration. It must be remembered that it takes a long time to develop a university to a high point of efficiency and service. It must also be remembered that a university is more than a few teachers, a few books, a few students, and classrooms. A university

in a true sense can exist only when an atmosphere of scholarship has been created within which teaching, research, and the development of the individual in the broadest sense are furthered. These desirable ends are achieved best when staff and facilities are focused at a single point. Experience throughout the country has shown again and again the truth of this statement.

The statement then presents the historical background that explains the strong centralization of university education in the state and considers "costs of dismemberment," "advantages of centralization," "the economic argument," and "a system of state-wide scholarships," bringing the discussion up to the "place of the junior college."

Much of the interest throughout the state in the matter of branch units undoubtedly has been stimulated by the nation-wide growth of the junior college. No educational program should be basically modified without first reaching some conclusions concerning the place the junior college would take. Would it be a part of the state-supported institutions of higher education, or would it eventually be integrated with the public schools of the local community? A recent compilation of junior-college statistics shows that at the outset of 1937 there were 528 junior colleges in the country with an enrolment of approximately 130,000. The growth has been rapid, especially since the war. Between 1936 and 1937 the enrolments in the private junior colleges declined slightly, in marked contrast to the year before. There is little doubt that the junior-college movement is a movement toward public education. What is more, in most places the junior colleges are established as a part of the public-school system and not as a part of the university system. The prediction seems fully justified that the whole junior-college movement is a transition movement and that in the course of time the work done by the junior colleges will become part of the curriculum of the high school. There is much to suggest that the movement to establish new and independent junior colleges reached a peak late in the 1920's. Before launching upon a system of state-supported junior colleges, either through the establishment of new schools or by taking steps that will lead to an appeal for state support of the local junior colleges, these trends should be carefully weighed. The implications are clear that any state should move slowly, if at all, in the direction of attaching a state-wide junior-college program to its university program.

This conception of the junior college as a part of basic public education may not have been original with Coffman, but it is our personal recollection that he maintained this view over a long period of years. The fact that he held it at all, however, sets him apart in a distinguished minority of far-seeing university and college presidents. Most heads of universities and colleges are still uncon-

vinced that the first two years of college and university work are not within the sphere of higher education proper. The movement grows without encouragement from them.

TWELVE-YEAR CURRICULUM TRENDS IN KANSAS HIGH SCHOOLS

THE December *Bulletin of Education* of the University of Kansas publishes, in long article form, a report by Professor Carl B. Althaus of "Curriculum Practices and Curriculum Trends in Kansas Senior High Schools." The "senior high schools" we assume to be mostly four-year high schools. The trends are ascertained by reporting the subjects offered and the percentage of all pupil enrolments in each subject for each third year from 1924 to 1936. Because the percentages disclose some rather notable shifts, we draw in the accompanying table on the evidence for the earliest and the latest year represented in the tabulations.

PERCENTAGE OF ALL PUPIL ENROLMENTS IN EACH OF
TWELVE DIVISIONS OF SUBJECTS IN SENIOR HIGH
SCHOOLS OF KANSAS IN 1924 AND 1936

Division	1924	1936
English.....	22.60	18.77
Foreign language.....	6.27	3.82
Mathematics.....	10.53	10.22
Science.....	15.17	11.79
History and social sciences...	15.98	15.95
Commercial subjects.....	9.28	13.63
Fine arts.....	4.40	8.59
Home economics.....	5.61	5.12
Normal training.....	4.00	0.47
Vocational agriculture.....	0.75	0.45
Industrial art.....	2.74	4.63
Physical education.....	2.67	6.56

The "divisions of subjects" found to have experienced the greatest relative losses during the twelve-year interval are foreign language and normal training, with English and science sharing, to some extent, in the declines. The drop for normal training may be explained—and justified—by the elevation in standards of teacher preparation that became possible through the surplus of teachers during the years of the depression. The other three divisions appear-

ing to lose ground are often referred to as "academic" subjects and the decline in them is, in large part, a reflection of increments for other subjects, notably, commercial subjects, fine arts, industrial art, and physical education. These subjects are often designated as "nonacademic." Examination of a special table for the fine arts, which cannot be reproduced here, shows that nine-tenths and more of the enrolment in this division is in musical subjects.

Professor Althaus explains that for his computations no distinction was made between enrolments in subjects scheduled to meet two or three times a week and those scheduled five times and suggests that the reader take this detail of procedure into account in making interpretations. The fact that the nonacademic and newer subjects are more often scheduled to meet less frequently would mean that the trends appear to be more marked than they would be if they had been measured in terms of time spent in class. Also, an older division of subjects, like history and the social sciences, which appears only to be holding its own, probably made some gains during the period reviewed. On the whole, one may properly infer that the trends are in the direction of a recognition in the curriculum of more areas of life and living, with somewhat diminishing stress on preparation for college.

A NEW AID TO CONSUMER EDUCATION

AT HAND are Numbers 1 and 2 (for January and February) of Volume I of *Consumer Education*, put out as "A News Letter" by the newly established Institute for Consumer Education. Editorial and business offices are at Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri. The new periodical will be published monthly except during July, August, and September, and it is free to educators. A charge of twenty-five cents a year is made to others.

The purpose, activities, auspices, organization, and source of support of the Institute for Consumer Education are indicated in the following announcement quoted from the first number of *Consumer Education*.

The Institute for Consumer Education has been established to assist in carrying forward whatever educational developments promise to be most helpful to rank-and-file consumers, both as individuals and as members of an advanced economic community.

Its activities include: establishing a well-equipped consumer library open to anyone interested, courses at Stephens College, a consumer's clinic for students and adults; preparing school study materials and adult study materials; publishing a monthly news letter (this one), and a series of popular booklets on consumer problems; sponsoring research projects; and organizing a national conference of leaders in consumer education to be held at the Institute headquarters in April.

The affairs of the Institute are freely open to public scrutiny.

The Institute was organized entirely by educators holding the consumer point of view. The need for work in this field was indicated by a study made for Stephens College in 1922 by Dr. W. W. Charters, director of the Bureau of Educational Research at Ohio State University. A project based on his findings was presented by President J. M. Wood of Stephens College to the Alfred P. Sloan Economic Foundation, Inc., early in 1936. Harold S. Sloan, director of the foundation, knowing of the need from years of work as a professor of economics in New Jersey State Teachers College at Montclair, approved the idea and has since given much thought to the program and set-up of the Institute. . . .

The Institute has no membership.

It is supported solely by annual grants from the Sloan Foundation. All offers of help from business sources have been flatly rejected and always will be. The Sloan Foundation supports the Institute as part of its general educational program for the dissemination of economic knowledge. The director of the Foundation must approve of the general nature of the work done by the Institute, but for the actual carrying-out of the program, the staff alone is to be responsible.

The services and publications of the Institute are intended for consumers themselves and for teachers of consumers. It has nothing to sell for profit.

Under general supervision from President Wood and Professor Charters, responsibility for the work of the institute is in the hands of the director and the staff. The director is John M. Cassels, who came to the work from his position as assistant professor in the department of economics at Harvard University. The associate director is James E. Mendenhall, of Teachers College, Columbia University, who has been editor of *Building America*, a periodical of pictorialized, socially significant curriculum material sponsored by the Society for Curriculum Study. The editor of *Consumer Education* is Helen Dallas.

When this issue of the *School Review* is in the mails on its way to subscribers, the institute will be holding at Stephens College a National Conference on Consumer Education, which is being par-

ticipated in by many persons prominent in this currently dynamic area of education.

AN INQUIRY INTO EQUALIZATION THROUGH STATE SCHOOL FUNDS

WE NEED hardly remind the reader that important questions pondered by the President's Advisory Committee on Education have had to do with policy touching federal aid for education. Recommendations of the committee, as everyone knows, have been widely discussed. In order to be aided in arriving at a desirable policy, the committee found it necessary to have at hand some knowledge of how much was being achieved toward equalization within the states through funds from state sources. This knowledge was supplied by a "staff study" made by Professors Newton Edwards and Herman G. Richey, which has lately found its way into print under the title *The Extent of Equalization Secured through State School Funds*.

The geographic unit within the state used throughout the study is the county. Three measures of relative need are employed: (1) assessed valuation per child seven to thirteen years of age, (2) an index of the plane of living, and (3) the number of children seven to thirteen years of age per 1,000 adults twenty to sixty-four years of age. A series of illuminating charts are included to discover the extent of relationship of these factors within the twenty-six states represented in the investigation. We quote what appear to be the major inferences of the investigation.

A comparatively large number of states possessing only moderately sized distributive funds have made a real beginning toward equalization of opportunity and the burden of school support. However, it appears that in all of these states those counties having the smaller amounts of assessable wealth, the larger numbers of children, and the lower levels of living receive smaller shares of the state distributive funds than are socially justifiable. In fewer than one-third of the states examined do equalization plans appear to provide, either through large appropriations to all, or through allocating larger shares to the weaker sections, for what appears to be a reasonably equitable distribution of aid to those areas that probably have the greatest need and certainly have the least ability.

During the past quarter of a century there has been a definite and unmistakable tendency on the part of the states to adopt policies designed to equalize

educational opportunity to a greater or less degree. It is true, nevertheless, that a relatively small number of states have systems of state aid which equalize educational opportunity and the burden of school support to a degree that seems to be socially desirable. In most states, counties having a high ratio of children to adults, a low plane of living, and a low assessed valuation per child receive, as a rule, more state aid than counties having a light educational load, a high plane of living, and a high assessed valuation. But even so, when state distributive funds are added to the amount which could be raised by a uniform tax levy, the poorer counties, in the great majority of instances, fall markedly below the richer counties in the amount available per child of school age.

There is reason to believe, moreover, that assessed valuation imputes to the poorer counties ability which, on the basis of income, they do not possess. If this is true, the ability of poor counties to finance education may be exaggerated by a measure based on a uniform tax rate and the state distributive fund.

Although an increasing number of states are developing reasonably acceptable plans of equalization, it appears, nevertheless, that state aid in the majority of states is not so distributed as adequately to equalize educational opportunity. In general, state-administered school funds do not appear to be equitably distributed between the rural and urban areas or between the richer and poorer counties. Although there is an increasing number of exceptions, the majority of states are not, at present, distributing their own funds in a manner that could be recommended for the distribution of federal funds.

If the federal government should adopt the policy of granting aid to the states for the purpose of equalizing educational opportunity, it would seem that some precaution should be taken to insure an equitable distribution of the funds with respect to geographical areas and population elements within the states.

Copies of this report may be purchased for fifteen cents of the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C.

HERE AND THERE AMONG THE HIGH SCHOOLS

LIMITATIONS of space restrict to three the number of innovations described in this month's "Here and There." They have to do with pupil management of classroom activities, pupil management for one day of a broadcasting station, and a league for board members of rural high schools. Several other significant innovations must be held over for later spring issues.

Management of classroom activities by pupils Our "Here and There" in the November *School Review* carried an item on a "garden exchange" conducted by the classes in biology in the Roosevelt High School of Oakland, California, of

which G. E. Furbush is principal. Description of the project had been supplied by Miss Ruth Wood, instructor in biology. Miss Wood has prepared a description of another type of innovation in which she has shared, and we are privileged to draw on it here, although the brief abstracts which may be presented cannot do justice to the projects.

Miss Wood recently found that the term was nearly over and that there were still two important subjects in a course in advanced biology which had not been considered. These subjects were heredity and national resources, which Miss Wood regarded as high points in the course and no less important than any other subjects dealt with in high school. The class had been a capable one, showing interest in other parts of the course, and had tarried too long on previous topics. Miss Wood decided to turn the remainder of the term over to the pupils to see what they could do with the two topics. The topic of heredity was assigned to the girls and that of national resources to the boys. Each group chose its own chairman, and the work of gathering material in addition to that given in the textbooks, hearing oral reports, and tentative marking of oral and written reports was done by the pupil chairmen. Miss Wood kept a record of all work and later discussed all steps of progress with both chairmen. After all reports had been completed, each pupil was allowed to contribute one question for the written review of the topic, each question being designed to bring out the most interesting and significant part of his individual report to the class.

The results of the first project were so gratifying that Miss Wood has been tempted to try the plan on a larger scale with a class of older pupils. She has organized a class in advanced vocational chemistry into two groups according to sex. Any laboratory experiments necessary for explanation are performed by the pupil who has charge of the corresponding part of the topic, first by himself and later as a demonstration before the class. The whole plan has proved so interesting that both pupils and instructor have found the time too short to accomplish all they would like to do in preparation for the reports.

Miss Wood explains that this class is composed of pupils who do not plan to attend college and that the course is intended to afford

them terminal instruction in chemistry. The pupils include some who are incapable of college work and others who are of average or higher-than-average ability. The course is designed to give the pupil more "practical" and less theoretical work than would a course planned in preparation for college. Subject matter is, therefore, rearranged, and greater freedom is allowable in the choice of materials presented.

The topics for boys which had been considered up to the time of this report were agriculture (including the subtopics of soils, fertilizers, pests, water culture, weed eradication, and animal husbandry with special reference to foods and care of pets) and engineering (including, as subtopics, batteries, combustion and fuels, lubrication, fire extinguishers, chemical warfare, and metals). The topic for girls was cosmetics (including, as subtopics, composition of the body tissues, normal and abnormal metabolism, creams, powders, rouges, lipsticks, lotions and packs, eye cosmetics, nail polishes, hair attributes, perfumes, and bath salts). Some of the subtopics were further subdivided, for example, fuels into solid, liquid, and gaseous. A topic on which boys and girls worked together was photography. This topic was handled by a pupil who is already a "semi-professional photographer." Another topic on which both boys and girls worked was crime and its abatement, the boys being occupied with chemical and physical methods of detection, while the girls centered their attention on phases of the causes and the prevention of crime. This topic, which took the pupils outside the realm of chemistry, illustrates the breakdown of subject barriers permissible in the course.

Other topics to be studied during the course and to be handled in the same way are: for the boys, taxidermy, mineralogy, and forestry; for the girls, textiles, dietetics, and kitchen utensils.

Miss Wood reports a number of "signs of success" of the course. She says that several of the pupils are requesting a course in college-preparatory chemistry for next term. They are students of the type who must be shown that a subject is practical before they will make the effort to secure a passing mark in it. One boy is sure he wants to be a "G-man." A number have taken to developing their own films and pictures. Twenty asked for materials to try water culture at home, as the lighting conditions prevented doing so at school. Miss

Wood has little faith in testimonials of pupils but quotes several, of which the following are examples: "Hunting for our own material teaches us to be more independent, to have initiative, and to assume responsibility" and "A variety of topics gives us a greater number of ideas than would a single assignment to all."

Pupils take charge of a radio station for a day From the Argentine High School of Kansas City, Kansas, of which J. C. Harmon is principal, comes the report of a project

in which pupils completely staffed and managed a radio broadcasting station for a day. The project was planned and executed under the faculty direction of K. C. Skeen and was carried out on Saturday afternoon, February 25, from two to seven o'clock over station KCKN. This special broadcast day was the culminating event in a series of fifteen-minute broadcasts which have been produced weekly during the past two years by the Argentine High School group. These programs have included arrangements of instrumental and vocal music, student forums, "sports casts," choral reading, special-talent programs, and pupil-written dramatizations. Interested pupils form a radio-broadcasting committee, write dialogue and continuity, assist in directing and producing their own shows, devise sound effects, and co-ordinate the musical and the dramatic portions of each broadcast. Thus, according to Mary Heckman, student publicity director, and Faculty Adviser Skeen, the pupils take over the management and the actual program production "with a considerable background and an abundance of enthusiasm."

The theme selected for the afternoon of broadcasting was "Airways and Folkways in the American High School." Features of the program for the day included introductions of city and school officials by the high-school principal; brief addresses by men of prominence on professions, vocations, and sports; a show entitled "Corridor Echoes," depicting social problems as discussed in school halls; a children's quarter-hour with music and a story; short news casts by several boys and girls; and a dinner-hour concert.

Eight rural high schools maintain activities league Principal D. S. Lauver, of the Partridge (Kansas) Rural High School, submits a brief description of the extension of an "activities league" which has been maintained among eight rural

high schools in his vicinity with provisions for competition in athletics and other school activities. Several of the principals felt that school-board members should have better knowledge of the relations and the activities of the league. An open meeting was arranged to which all board members were invited. As a result an association of school-board members of the eight schools has been organized. According to Principal Lauver, the members have discovered many common problems and have shown eagerness to learn from one another. At a recent meeting and banquet having seventy-five attendants, the boards agreed that principals should attend the meeting of the State Council of Administration. They have shown an interest in a uniform salary schedule in their schools and in pending school legislation.

INFORMATIVE PUBLICATIONS IN PAPER COVERS

AMONG the paper-covered publications reaching the editor's desk in recent weeks are four sufficiently informative and interesting to merit special mention. They have to do with the implications of research for the classroom teacher, professional library education, summer workshops for secondary-school teachers, and school tours.

Conclusions of research for the classroom teacher Last year the National Society for the Study of Education issued an important yearbook entitled *The Scientific Movement in Education*, in which was summarized the progress over the period of a generation in the use of objective procedures in the investigation of problems in education. Something like a companion volume to this yearbook is supplied in *The Implications of Research for the Classroom Teacher*, a joint publication of the American Educational Research Association and the Department of Classroom Teachers of the National Education Association. The document contains about three hundred pages and consists of two parts, the first containing chapters on the general significance of research to teachers and the second, much longer than the first, containing chapters of more specific significance for the classroom teacher. Most of the chapters of Part II report and discuss implications in the different areas of instruction, such as the language arts, social studies, the appreciational arts, etc. All the contributors are well

known and are conversant with the research in the areas represented. The publication is priced at one dollar.

Guidance concerning the profession of the librarian

Suitable for use in guidance is a pamphlet by Nora E. Beust, of the Library Service Division of the United States Office of Education. The publication is entitled *Professional Library Education*, with the subtitle "Introducing the Library." It is issued as Bulletin Number 23, 1937, and is procurable for fifteen cents of the Superintendent of Documents in Washington. In the Foreword, Assistant Commissioner of Education Bess Goodykoontz says:

The purpose of this bulletin is to give the prospective library school student information about libraries and the library profession that will help him to determine for himself the vocational possibilities in the library field and the kinds of preparation required for the various fields of service. Counselors in high schools and colleges, library trustees, and others who wish to inform themselves of the place and varied functions of the library in modern society may also find material of interest.

Main headings of content are "The Modern Library," "Historical Background," "Range of the Modern Library," "Library Organizations," and "Library Schools and the Library Profession."

Summer workshops for secondary-school teachers

The Progressive Education Association, headquarters of which are at 310 West Ninetieth Street, New York City, is distributing an attractively printed and profusely illustrated booklet describing the plan and program of workshops which it has been sponsoring since the summer of 1936. The pamphlet is called *Summer Workshops in Secondary Education* ("An Experiment in the In-Service Training of Teachers and Other Educational Workers") and is credited to W. Carson Ryan, of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, and Professor Ralph W. Tyler, of the University of Chicago. Chapter headings are "How the Summer Workshops Began," "What the Workshops Were Like," and "What We Have Learned from the Workshops."

A communication from Kenneth L. Heaton, executive secretary of the Progressive Education Association's Committee on Workshops and Field Service, reports that "interest seems to be increasing in this type of educational experience as a regular offering in gradu-

ate schools" and names the institutions at which the association is sponsoring workshops during the coming summer. These institutions are the University of Chicago, Claremont Colleges, Colorado College of Education, Northwestern University, Ohio State University, Stanford University, Syracuse University, and Teachers College, Columbia University. Another workshop for the teachers of schools of the Eight-Year Study will be held at the University of Denver, and a workshop sponsored by the Universities of Idaho, Oregon, and Washington will be held on the Reed College Campus in Portland, Oregon.

Study of practices in conducting high-school tours

The United States Office of Education has made available, as Circular Number 177, a report on "School Tours," prepared by Carl A. Jessen, senior specialist in secondary education, with the assistance of Sidney Sarff. The publication is mimeographed and contains only about fifteen pages, but it is packed with information about school tours of schools in larger centers of population. The information concerns such matters as the number and the duration of tours, destinations, transportation and distances traveled, overnight accommodations, and financing. Copies of the circular may be secured without cost on request sent directly to the Office of Education.

BROADCASTS ON RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN
GENERAL EDUCATION

THE American Education Forum has arranged a series of radio discussions on general education which are being presented over the Blue Network of the National Broadcasting Company each Saturday at twelve noon, eastern standard time. The programs have been arranged by a committee consisting of Dean Grayson N. Kefauver, of Stanford University; Professor William S. Gray, of the University of Chicago; and Professor Clyde R. Miller, of Teachers College, Columbia University. The series during the spring months will feature pioneering developments of colleges and universities in the field of general education. Professor Alvin C. Eurich, of Stanford University, will spend several days at each of the experimental centers to be described in the series. Then each Saturday, Professor Eurich,

as an outside observer, together with the head of the institution and members of the staff, will give a picture of the educational program and discuss the underlying assumptions with regard to general education. The dates for the broadcasts and the institutions the programs of which will be considered are: April 1, Menlo School and Junior College; April 8, Pasadena Junior College; April 15, Stephens College; April 22, University of Chicago; April 29, University of Minnesota; and May 6, Bennington College. The series will be concluded on May 13 with a consideration of "Trends in General Education," in which Professor Eurich will be joined by Professor Donald Cottrell, of Teachers College, Columbia University, and Dean Kefauver. The broadcasts should have meaning, not only for persons concerned with college education, but just as much for high-school teachers and administrators.

A CONFERENCE ON "BUSINESS EDUCATION IN SCHOOL SITUATIONS"

THE dates set for the Sixth Annual Conference on Business Education sponsored by the School of Business of the University of Chicago are Thursday and Friday, June 29-30. The general topic for the conference will be "Business Education in School Situations." Previous conferences have been largely devoted to the problem of reconstructing secondary-school business education and developing the outlines of a fundamental type of business education. The conference for this year is an outgrowth of previous conferences in that a beginning will be made on the task of developing criteria by which administrative officers and teachers may appraise the offerings in their own school situations. It is to be a conference of the work type. During the first day a conference committee will be occupied with digesting and getting into tentative form the opinions of a representative group of experts on curriculum, secondary-school and college administrators, classroom teachers, and representatives of state departments, labor, and business. On the second day the findings of the committee will be presented as a set of working standards. Two formal addresses will be made at this session, one on the general problem of establishing standards and the second on the practical use of standards in school situations.

Detailed announcement of the program and of the personnel of the conference is being prepared and will be sent as soon as it is ready in response to requests directed to the School of Business of the University of Chicago.

WHO'S WHO FOR APRIL

The authors of articles in the current issue WILFRED EBERHART, assistant professor of education at the University of Chicago and research assistant in the Evaluation in the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association. WARREN C. SEYFERT, assistant professor of education at Harvard University. ROBERT C. WOELLNER, associate professor of education and executive secretary of the Board of Vocational Guidance and Placement at the University of Chicago. VERA OLBERT MEAD, teacher of history in the Senior High School at Port Washington, Wisconsin. DAVID CAMERON, teacher of English at Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois. PAUL W. TERRY, professor of educational psychology at the University of Alabama.

The writers of reviews in the current issue BROTHER WILLIAM, C.S.C., supervisor of high schools conducted by the Brothers of Holy Cross of Notre Dame, Indiana. WALTER V. KAULFERS, assistant professor of education at Stanford University and director of language curriculum at Menlo Junior College. FOWLER D. BROOKS, head of the Departments of Education and Psychology at DePauw University, Greencastle, Indiana. ERNEST A. ZELLIOT, director of the Department of Business Education in the public schools of Des Moines, Iowa. R. J. BRADLEY, professor of education at Macalester College, St. Paul, Minnesota. D. S. BRAINARD, professor of history at State Teachers College, St. Cloud, Minnesota. ELMER ELLIS, associate professor of history at the University of Missouri. ROY A. PRICE, assistant professor of social science and education at Syracuse University.

EVALUATING THE LEISURE READING OF HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS

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PROBLEM AND SOURCE OF EVIDENCE

DO HIGH-SCHOOL pupils like to read books in their leisure time? Is their reading of fiction largely confined to lurid tales of the type featured in drugstore circulating libraries, or does it frequently include books comparable in quality to those found in high-school literature courses? Is there any genuine interest in poetry, biography, the essay, science, and other types of nonfiction? Has frequent attendance at motion pictures made the reading of published plays an uninviting occupation? Is there any evidence of an increasing appreciation of more mature types of reading materials as the pupils advance from grade to grade?

As a means of securing reliable answers to questions of this kind, the Bronxville (New York) High School has, for a number of years, employed the plan of having pupils keep a continuous record of all books which they read, apart from those specifically required for class work. Throughout the school, but especially in the English classes, pupils are encouraged to spend part of their leisure time in extending their acquaintance with worth-while books. The literature program consists of a common core of experience as represented by the reading and discussion of such books as *David Copperfield*, *Giants in the Earth*, *Hamlet*, and various anthologies of literature, supplemented by additional reading which the pupil selects for himself from a wide range of suggested books. There are no rigid requirements in regard to the amount or the character of the supplementary reading. To a large degree the pupil is free to read much or little; he is urged only to be quite frank with himself and his teachers in the statements which he makes concerning his reading. The record sheet on which the pupil records his leisure-reading experi-

ences is in the form of a paper folder,¹ marked off into four spaces, thus:

Name of Book	Name of Author	Date Finished	How Well I Liked It

Recently there came to the office of the Evaluation Staff of the Progressive Education Association 279 such annual record forms, with entries indicating the year-by-year reading experiences of 112 pupils over periods of time ranging from one year to the entire six years of the junior-senior high school.

ASSUMPTIONS IN THE PROJECT

When reading records have been carefully kept over an extended period of time, two chief types of analyses are possible, namely, an analysis of individual development and an analysis of group progress. The Evaluation Staff has based its plan of analysis of reading records on a number of assumptions which are the outgrowth of a series of conferences with teachers of reading and literature in the thirty schools participating in the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association. The assumptions may be stated briefly thus:

The pupil's experiences with reading should be of such a nature that the pupil is stimulated (1) to read extensively, (2) to read various types of fiction and nonfiction, (3) to read books of gradually increasing maturity and complexity, and (4) to develop special interests in various fields of knowledge and various types of literature.

AN ILLUSTRATIVE CASE

In order to facilitate the gathering of evidence concerning the extent to which a pupil's reading experience has in reality resulted in the four types of behavior just indicated, the Evaluation Staff has devised a form suitable for summarizing individual reading records. The manner in which this form is used may be illustrated by the case

¹ This form has recently been revised to provide space for indicating the type of book, the place where the book was obtained, and the number of pages read.

of Theresa Smith, one of the pupils for whom reading records covering the six-year secondary-school period are available. The summary that was made of Theresa's reading record for Grade VII is shown on pages 260-61.

The summary indicates that Theresa has read a total of forty-one books during the academic year, an average of approximately one book a week. As will be seen later, she has read a larger number of books than the median pupil in the seventh-grade group and may be said to be reading rather extensively.

Is this pupil reading various types of fiction and nonfiction? The summary reveals that in the field of fiction the following types are represented: animal stories, boys' and girls' stories, cheerful and success stories, detective stories, love stories, and stories with historical backgrounds. Among the nonfiction types she has read three plays and one book of poetry. Her reading of nonfiction is evidently limited, but still a beginning has been made.

What can be said of the maturity of her reading tastes? On the summary sheet the books of fiction read by Theresa are rated, it will be noted, on a six-point scale ranging from very easy (Level 1) to very difficult reading (Level 6). This rating is made possible by reference to the *Alphabetical List of One Thousand Fiction Authors Classified by Subject and Maturity Level*,¹ a publication of the Evaluation Staff of the Progressive Education Association which provides an approximate measure of the relative difficulty of the books written by one thousand authors of fiction frequently read by high-school pupils. In those cases in which the author of a book read by Theresa does not appear on the list, the maturity rating was assigned on the basis of a comparison with similar authors who are listed. The median maturity level of the books of fiction read by the pupil was, in this manner, determined to be Level 1. This level of maturity was, incidentally, found to be the median maturity level at which the pupils in the seventh-grade group were reading. A typical example of a book in this category is George Barr McCutcheon's *The Prince of Graustark*.

¹ *Alphabetical List of One Thousand Fiction Authors Classified by Subject and Maturity Level*. Chicago: Evaluation in the Eight-Year Study, Progressive Education Association, University of Chicago, 1937.

SUMMARY OF READING RECORDS FOR THE YEAR 1932-33

NAME Theresa Smith Age I.Q.
 SCHOOL Bronxville Grade VII

Test Data:

Maturity Level

FICTION (Novels, books of short stories)	1	2	3	4	5	6	Uncl.	Total
1. Children's stories, fairy tales								
2. Animal stories	//							2
3. Boys' and girls' stories			/					1
4. Cheerful and success stories	////////							10
5. Humorous and satiric stories								
6. Adventure, western								
7. Detective, mystery, horror	////////		////		//			14
8. Love and romance	////	//						7
9. Character								
10. Family								
11. Special groups								
12. Setting								
13. Historical		//						2
14. Social and political problems								
15. Psychological and philosophical								
16. Unclassified							/	1
Total fiction	24	4	6		2		1	37
NONFICTION								
17. Biography and autobiography								
18. Drama							///	3
19. Poetry							/	1
20. Essays, humor, criticism								

SUMMARY OF READING RECORDS FOR THE YEAR 1932-33—Continued

Maturity Level

NONFICTION—Continued	1	2	3	4	5	6	Uncl.	Total
21. Philosophy and religion . . .								
22. Fine arts								
23. Hobbies and practical arts . .								
24. Science and natural history .								
25. History								
26. Political-social-economic problems								
27. Sports								
28. Travel and exploration . . .								
29. Unclassified								
Total nonfiction							4	4
Grand total	24	4	6		2		5	41

COMMENTS (special interests or needs revealed by this analysis, etc.)

To what extent is Theresa developing special interests in various fields of knowledge and various types of literature? The summary indicates that her chief interests are detective stories, cheerful stories, stories of love and romance, and plays. Among the fourteen detective stories that she has read are three by Margaret Sutton, bearing the shivery titles *The Haunted Attic*, *The Ghost Parade*, and *The Vanishing Shadow*, and four slight cases of murder described by S. S. Van Dine and involving, among other things, a kennel, a canary, and a bishop. The interest in love and romance is represented by seven books, with four of McCutcheon's Graustark tales featured. Included in the ten cheerful stories which she has read are eight of Whitehill's juveniles, three of which narrate the exploits of an extraordinary pair of twins and five of which deal with the adventures of two equally remarkable young ladies named Joy and Pam. In the field of the drama she has read a volume of contemporary plays and—a fact interesting to speculate about—Shakespeare's

Comedy of Errors and *The Two Gentlemen of Verona*. The first of these two she adjudges "good," but the second, she declares, is "not as good as he usually writes."

Here, then, is a seventh-grade girl who is evidently interested in reading, who selects books of various types, who especially enjoys light, easy fiction—and who has not been awed by Shakespeare. What do the succeeding records tell of her reading development? Has she continued to read a large number of books? Have interests in other types of literature emerged? Has she eventually sought a more honest, more realistic portrayal of life in fiction than that found in the stories laid in the illusory kingdom of Graustark? Have Whitehill's *Twins in the West* or Shakespeare's twins in the *Comedy of Errors* won out? The summary given in Table 1 tells the story briefly.

In Grade VIII Theresa has read twenty-five fewer books than during the previous year, and all her reading has been fiction. She has discovered Terhune and his dog stories, likewise Edgar Rice Burroughs and his fantastic stories of life on other planets (which she considered "a bit far-fetched"). The maturity rating is the same as in the preceding year, Level 1.

In Grade IX the volume of Theresa's reading has dropped somewhat again. The maturity level of the fiction is, however, slightly higher. Jeffery Farnol, whom she is now reading, is an advance over Edgar Rice Burroughs, and Conan Doyle over Margaret Sutton. The interest in Terhune continues. The one book of nonfiction deals with the care and handling of dogs.

In Grade X the general quality of the fiction that Theresa has read is markedly higher. Her list includes Cather's *Shadows on the Rock*, Wharton's *The Age of Innocence*, Hilton's *Goodbye, Mr. Chips* and *Lost Horizon*, Austen's *Sense and Sensibility*, and Hardy's *The Mayor of Casterbridge*. There is only one book of the type that formerly loomed so large in her reading, namely, Burroughs' *Pirates of Venus*, which represents, perhaps, a nostalgic look back at an earlier interest. Nonfiction includes a book about animals and a book of travel.

In Grade XI the fiction read is, in general, of a still higher level. The list includes Hawthorne's *The House of the Seven Gables*, Hardy's

Far from the Madding Crowd, Cather's *Lucy Gayheart*, and Mitchell's *Gone with the Wind*. A new interest in drama accounts for the large proportion of nonfiction. She has read a history of the drama and nine plays, including Barrie's *The Admirable Crichton*, Molnar's *Liliom*, Shakespeare's *Macbeth*, Goldsmith's *She Stoops To Conquer*, and O'Neill's *Ah, Wilderness!*

In Grade XII Theresa's interest in mature fiction continues, as indicated by her reading of Thackeray's *Henry Esmond*, Dickens' *A Tale of Two Cities*, and Wilder's *The Bridge of San Luis Rey*.

TABLE 1
SUMMARY OF READING RECORD OF ONE PUPIL DURING
PROGRESS FROM GRADE VII TO GRADE XII

Grade	Number of Books of Fiction Read	Median Ma- turity Level of Fiction	Number of Books of Non- fiction Read
VII.....	37	1	4
VIII.....	16	1	0
IX.....	12	1.5	1
X.....	10	4	2
XI.....	5	5	10
XII.....	9	3	1

There are more books of a simpler type, however, such as Rinehart's *The Doctor*, Douglas' *Green Light* and *Magnificent Obsession*, and McCutcheon's *Sherry*. The only book of nonfiction read is Maurois's *Byron*. Although she read and enjoyed many plays in Grade XI, the drama is not represented in her reading experiences in Grade XII.

By way of summary, then, it may be said that a number of changes have occurred in Theresa's reading interests over a period of six years' time. Especially notable are the following: (1) the markedly smaller number of books read in Grade VIII and succeeding grades in comparison with the number read in Grade VII, (2) the relatively sudden appearance in Grade X of an interest in mature fiction and its maintenance throughout the remainder of the senior high school years; (3) a fairly extensive reading of the drama in Grade XI, with no further reading of this type in Grade XII. In addition, it is perhaps a significant fact that her reading throughout these six years has been almost entirely confined to imaginative lit-

erature—the novel and the drama. She has, apparently, developed no abiding interests in the various types of nonfiction which often are of appeal to more advanced high-school pupils.

NUMBER OF BOOKS READ BY ALL PUPILS FROM GRADE TO GRADE

It would be interesting to note in detail the changes that have occurred from year to year in the reading interests of all the pupils for whom annual records covering several grades in the junior or senior high school are available. Limitations of space are such, however, that it seems advisable to present only the one illustrative case of

TABLE 2
MEDIAN NUMBER OF BOOKS READ PER PUPIL AND MATURITY
LEVEL OF FICTION READ IN GRADES VII-XII

GRADE	NUMBER OF RECORDS ANALYZED	FICTION			NONFICTION	
		Median Number of Books Read	Range in Number of Books Read	Median Maturity Level	Median Number of Books Read	Range in Number of Books Read
VII.....	30	31	4-129	1	2.5	0-17
VIII.....	32	20	3-78	2	2	0-21
IX.....	16	15	3-60	2	3	0-33
X.....	48	13	1-51	4	7	0-25
XI.....	48	7	0-14	4	5	0-23
XII.....	105	7	1-31	4	6	0-25

individual reading development and to proceed to a consideration of the changes which are discernible in group reading interests as pupils advance through Grades VII-XII. Table 2 indicates the median number of books of fiction and nonfiction read per pupil in Grades VII-XII and the median level of maturity of the fiction read in each of these grades.

It is evident that, in general, these pupils read books. It is the seventh-grade pupils, however, who are really the voracious readers, with a median of thirty-one books of fiction and two and one-half books of nonfiction per pupil. In this grade a number of pupils indicate that they have read sixty, seventy, or eighty books, and one pupil has read 136 books. In Grade VIII the median number of books of fiction read has dropped to twenty and books of nonfiction

to two. In Grades IX-XII the total amount of reading is markedly less than in the early years of the junior high school, but the proportion of nonfiction is much higher, with twelfth-grade pupils reading almost as much nonfiction as fiction. There are a great many books of juvenile fiction still being read in Grade VII; the median maturity

TABLE 3

DISTRIBUTION, ACCORDING TO TYPE, OF BOOKS READ BY 112 PUPILS
IN GRADES VII-IX AND GRADES X-XII

TYPE	NUMBER OF BOOKS READ		PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL READING DONE	
	Grades VII-IX (78 Reading Records)	Grades X-XII (201 Reading Records)	Grades VII-IX	Grades X-XII
Fiction.....	2,269	1,654	88.05	54.77
Biography and autobiography...	61	264	2.37	8.74
Drama.....	60	526	2.33	17.42
Science and natural history.....	39	172	1.51	5.70
History.....	38	79	1.47	2.62
Travel and exploration.....	33	63	1.28	2.09
Hobbies and practical arts.....	24	44	.93	1.46
Poetry.....	16	29	.62	.96
Political-social-economic problems.....	14	89	.54	2.95
Sports.....	727
Essays, humor, criticism.....	6	57	.23	1.89
Fine arts.....	6	12	.23	.40
Philosophy and religion.....	4	31	0.16	1.03
Total.....	2,577	3,020	99.99	100.03

rating is Level 1. In Grades VIII and IX the quality has risen to Level 2. In the senior high school the median maturity level for all three grades is 4, which indicates that typical reading materials are contemporary novels like those of Sinclair Lewis, Margaret Mitchell, and Louis Bromfield, and nineteenth-century novels such as those of Dickens and Stevenson.

TYPES OF BOOKS READ

A comparison of the types of books most frequently read in the junior high school years with those read in the senior high school reveals that many changes in reading interests have occurred. Table 3

shows that in Grades VII, VIII, and IX the reading is preponderantly in the field of fiction. The books of nonfiction read constitute only 12 per cent of the total number of books. Biography and drama are the two most popular types of nonfiction, but these two types together account for less than 5 per cent of the books read. In the senior high school a different situation prevails. Nonfiction constitutes about 45 per cent of the reading. Drama is remarkably popular, and the large number of books of biography and science in-

TABLE 4
TYPES OF NONFICTION RANKING FIRST, SECOND, AND THIRD ACCORDING TO FREQUENCY WITH WHICH READ BY
112 PUPILS IN GRADES VII-XII

GRADE	TYPE OF LITERATURE RANKING—		
	First	Second	Third
VII.....	History	Science	Biography
VIII.....	Biography	History	Science
IX.....	Biography	Practical arts	Drama
X.....	Drama	Science	Biography
XI.....	Drama	Biography	Travel
XII.....	Biography	Drama	Essay

icates genuine interest in these areas. The amount of poetry read is very slight in both the junior high school and the senior high school; in neither area does it amount to as much as 1 per cent of the books read.

The analysis by grade of the types of nonfiction read by the largest number of pupils is shown in Table 4.

RELATION TO BOOKS USED IN CLASSROOM STUDY

It is somewhat difficult to determine whether the interest in certain types of books evidenced by the pupils in their leisure reading is directly related to their study of these types in the classroom. It seems reasonable, however, to suppose that, in certain instances at least, such is the case. Table 3, for example, indicates that the drama accounts for 17.42 per cent of the books read in leisure time in the senior high school as compared with 2.33 per cent in the junior high school. This difference roughly corresponds to the relative emphasis

given to the drama in the curriculums of the two divisions of the school. In the junior high school grades the full-length drama occupies a relatively minor position, while in the senior high school the English courses include the reading of certain of the plays of Barrie, O'Neill, Shaw, Ibsen, and Galsworthy. It appears likely, also, that the relatively high quality of the fiction read in the senior high school is due, in part at least, to the influence exerted by teachers through the medium of lists of suggested readings, informal recommendations to individual pupils, and class discussion of leisure-reading experiences. On the other hand, the extensive in-class reading of poetry in both the junior and the senior high schools has not, so far as the record of leisure reading reveals, resulted in an appreciable amount of voluntary reading of poetry.

SOME PROVOCATIVE QUESTIONS

An evaluation of pupils' reading experiences of the type presented in this study raises several provocative questions. Is it a practical kind of evaluation which may be undertaken economically by the classroom teacher, or does it necessitate the services of specially trained persons with more time at their disposal? Are the findings made available by such a study of value for the improvement of curricular offerings? Is the teacher, with such data at his disposal, better able to offer judicious guidance to pupils in their free reading experiences? May pupils themselves be stimulated to plan more enjoyable and more intelligent reading programs when they can compare their reading experiences with those of other pupils of the same grade level?

In regard to the first of these questions, it may be said that the high-school teacher who, unaided, undertakes to summarize a large number of reading records will find the task a somewhat heavy drain on his time and energy. With the assistance of the pupils in the classes being surveyed, however, the load may be greatly lightened, and the teacher's duties become largely supervisory in character. The making of individual summaries of reading records is essentially a clerical task which pupils should, without undue difficulty, be able to perform for themselves. The assigning of maturity ratings to authors of fiction who do not appear on the *Alphabetical List of One*

Thousand Fiction Authors is the only item here which is likely to cause concern. Either of two courses may be followed at this point: (1) Pupils may classify as to maturity level only those authors who appear on the list. (2) Pupils may, with the counsel of the teacher where necessary, make approximate ratings by comparison with authors whose work is familiar to them. A small committee of the abler pupils working under the direction of the teacher may make a summary of group reading experiences similar to that presented in Tables 2 and 3. This procedure has the dual merit of relieving the teacher of unnecessary clerical work and of enlisting the interest of pupils in the evaluation of their own achievement.

VALUES OF A CLASS STUDY

The data made available by such a study should be of value in aiding the teacher to determine whether the program being followed by his pupils is of such a nature as to promote extensive reading, the reading of different types of fiction and nonfiction, the gradual raising of reading tastes, and the development of special interests in various fields of knowledge and various types of literature. By such means he may come to a clearer realization of the successful aspects of his work and of the points at which change in emphasis or direction is advisable. Thus the summaries found in the present study point to the need for a consideration of the causes of the marked decrease in the total amount of reading which parallels the pupil's entry into the higher grades, the great preponderance of fiction over nonfiction in the junior high school, and the relative neglect of such types as poetry and the essay. The summaries indicate, on the other hand, that in the earlier years these pupils are reading extensively, that the quality of the fiction rises sharply in the senior high school, and that the more advanced pupils have developed interests in several types of literature other than fiction.

It would seem that the individual summaries offer the teacher an admirable opportunity for the guidance of pupils in their reading experiences either through the medium of personal conferences or through informal group discussions. A reading program heavily weighted in the direction of, let us say, mystery stories or juvenile fiction is frequently the result of a haphazard selection of books

rather than of a pronounced aversion to other kinds of reading, and the unobtrusive suggestion of an interesting book of a different type may be sufficient to stimulate certain pupils to strike out on new reading pathways. Others may find their curiosity whetted by the comments of classmates who have developed an enthusiasm for certain books and authors. Sometimes the reading aloud of excerpts from books or the arrangement of a book display in the classroom may supply the desired stimulus.

Finally, by an analysis of this kind, a pupil is able to assess his own progress, to see wherein he has advanced toward the achievement of such ends as those enumerated in this study. He has available not only a detailed statement of his standing at any given time but also an analysis over a period of years which provides a kind of overview of his development. He can compare his own reading with that of other pupils at the same grade level. He is, in short, provided with some basis for the intelligent planning of his reading experiences.

THE SMALL-SCHOOL CO-OPERATIVE

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ANOTHER PROPOSAL FOR IMPROVEMENT OF THE SMALL HIGH SCHOOL

THE small high school has been, and continues to be, a chronic inflammation on the body educational. In spite of dosing with modern teaching methods, new curriculum materials, and social reorientation, the irritation persists. In the end the doctors may conclude that a permanent cure can be effected only by amputation—closing all small secondary schools. Before so difficult and violent an operation is undertaken, however, gentler measures for relieving the inflammation ought to be investigated in a more exhaustive fashion than they have been. Amputation always brings inconvenience; the abandonment of small high schools would certainly produce this result. There may be worth-while values inherent in the small and local high school which should be sacrificed only as a last and desperate move. It is not the purpose of this article to elaborate these values; let them be assumed to exist. The intent is to examine the nature and the means of applying one of the gentler measures.

One such measure has had widespread application in recent years: the consolidation of small schools into larger ones. While this remedy has, without question, proved to be extremely beneficial in many instances, a number of conditions cannot be overlooked.

The impossibility of consolidation in the case of some schools must be reckoned with. This impossibility may derive from one or more of several sources: geographical location, distribution of population, the existence of buildings that cannot be abandoned economically or be put to new uses readily, legal barriers, and the like. Wherever such difficulties exist, they mean that the physical consolidation of schools cannot be used even as a partial remedy for the problems of the schools in question.

Of far greater frequency and significance are those instances in which the barriers to consolidation are psychological rather than physical. To continue the metaphor, consolidation as a source of help for the small school has often stood on the shelf unused because the patient's parents thought the medicine too bitter or did not like the shape of the bottle in which it came. Where a town or village has behind it a long tradition of local autonomy, where pride in local institutions runs high, where the mark of the self-respecting community is thought to be the maintenance of a local high school, or where jealousy and uncertainty characterize intercommunity relations, the idea of consolidation does not find ready acceptance.

It cannot be denied, then, that educators and laymen must not be too sanguine of consolidation as a way out of their difficulties for all small schools. Neither is the failure of consolidation as a panacea sufficient reason for becoming completely pessimistic concerning the future of the small school. To be sure, some steps have been taken in individual small schools to improve conditions, but they have not proved to be complete and lasting cures. The purpose of this article is to recommend and describe the extension of a practice, now occasionally employed by small schools, which would make it possible to realize many of the values of consolidation even though local high schools are continued. It will not be argued that the proposal is an entirely satisfactory substitute for consolidation. The procedure may, however, while providing temporary relief, also serve as a prelude to consolidation in those communities where consolidation is now looked upon askance.

The proposal, simply put, is this: that the small high schools of a region set up what can be called an educational co-operative. The purpose of the co-operative would be to facilitate joint administrative planning and purchasing of materials and the sharing of resources, personal and material. Immediately the criticism may be advanced that the same psychological factors which hamper consolidation will operate to defeat attempts at co-operation. This possibility must be admitted. Nevertheless, several potent considerations limit the force of this argument. While consolidation is an all-or-none process, interschool co-operation can be carried on in that kind and that amount which will suit the temper of the communities

involved. Further, it should not be too difficult a task to convince even the most hardheaded group of taxpayers that a co-operative program can improve substantially the work of a small school without materially increasing expenses—a consideration upon which many plans for consolidation have been wrecked. Moreover, the co-operative would be based on the maintenance of the local school rather than its abandonment. Finally, the precedent for interschool co-operation is well established in the union superintendency and in the sharing of the services of such teachers as a director of physical education and a teacher of the fine arts. This precedent, together with the general public interest in the co-operative movement, would seem to make this a most opportune time to extend the idea in the educational field.

"STRETCHING" PERSONNEL THROUGH A CO-OPERATIVE

It is neither necessary nor possible within the scope of this discussion to describe all the ways in which the educational co-operative may be put to work. The work of the co-operative will be conditioned, in part, by the local manifestations of general small-school problems as they are found in the schools making up the co-operative. Further, as has been said, community sentiment must be reckoned with. Geographical considerations will be a modifying factor. Although the specific activities of a given co-operative must be, and should be, oriented about local conditions, a few illustrations will serve to show the lines along which a number of small schools may work together to the advantage of all.

Because its faculty is few in number and because ordinarily this faculty must be used to the limit to care for a minimum instructional program, the small school seldom has available the variety of educational experts who render significant service in larger school systems. Occasionally, of course, the small school, through some stroke of good fortune, succeeds in obtaining an instructor who, in addition to his ability in the classroom, has also at least an amateur's competence in some special field. For the most part, however, the individual small high school can do little more than take potluck. Further, for it to maintain anything which resembles organized departments is ordinarily out of the question. To be sure, certain

teachers may be designated as department heads, but the designation can, perforce, have little significance. Whatever potential values departments have, they are ordinarily unobtainable in the small school. Finally, it should be noted that the small high school experiences difficulty in preserving the continuity of its work because the annual rate of teacher turnover is relatively high. The situation is made still more acute by the fact that the small high school is seldom in a position to secure teachers who have both unusual promise and extensive classroom experience.

In dealing with the problem of special services, the heads of the schools making up a co-operative might well proceed in the following manner. For the sake of the argument suppose it were found, on careful investigation, that the common needs of a group of schools were a person capable of diagnosing and treating reading-problem cases at the secondary-school level; someone able to handle testing in expert fashion, both in the selection and the use of published tests and in the improvement of homemade examinations; a teacher able to formulate and direct guidance activities suitable for small high schools; and someone conversant with the general theory and practice of curriculum-making. Let it be assumed also that the relative urgency of need is indicated by the order in which these have been listed. Those men responsible for the selection of teachers in each of the schools involved would then agree that, as soon as a vacancy occurs in any one or all of the schools, the effort will be made to fill it with a teacher who can handle the regular classroom work but who also has at least an amateur's ability in dealing with reading problems. At least from among the younger generation of teachers it should not be too difficult to secure for one of the schools a reading hobbyist. As soon as such a teacher has been located in one of the schools, attention should immediately shift to the obtaining of a testing specialist. In similar fashion, the other needs can be met as the situation permits. It should be added that every effort ought to be made to locate at least one hobbyist in each of the schools in the co-operative since the basis of the plan is the voluntary exchange of teacher services by the schools, and each school will need to have something to exchange.

The advantages of the co-operative attack on this problem are

readily apparent. First, where several schools are working together, the total number of vacancies appearing at any one time will be greater and more varied in nature than those in but one school. Thereby the likelihood is increased that somewhere within the group of schools it will be possible to fit together teacher and job. Further, almost universally the regular schedule of the teacher in the small high school is so heavy that only with the greatest difficulty can his load be reduced somewhat to permit his carrying other duties. If some slack can be found in the school's program which can be assigned to the promotion of special services, it seems wiser and more practicable in the individual school to give all the time made or found to a single teacher rather than to divide it sparingly among several or all teachers.

This exchange of services will mean that each school, while employing but one specialist, has available to it the help and the advice of four. Certain obstacles to the successful operation of the proposal may occur to the reader. What about community attitudes? The plan gives the school assistance that it otherwise would not have—and at negligible cost. While the distances which separate rural and village high schools must be considered, it should be remembered that these distances often are no greater than those separating the schools of large city systems where individual teachers and supervisors frequently serve several schools. Finally, it may be wondered whether the teacher-specialist, even though given some free time for the purpose, actually would have sufficient time to attend to all the problems falling in his field in all the schools of the co-operative. This difficulty is probably the most serious practical criticism that can be made of the plan. However, this criticism may not be too serious if each of the specialists is viewed primarily as an organizer and a director and only secondarily as the practitioner of his art.

The tangible contributions of departments and department heads are often hard to discover, but they can give rise to a number of intangible values which are sufficient to justify their existence. They give to teachers contacts, both formal and informal, with others who are working on problems similar or closely related to their own; they facilitate the exchange of ideas and the giving and the receiving of

specialized criticism; they permit group attack on problems handled with difficulty by the individual teacher. In general, departmental organizations can and do serve as an important constructive influence in the environment of the teacher. This influence is absent from the environment of the teacher in the small high school. For example, the teacher of English or of science in the small high school must, for the most part, work out his own salvation. To the extent that his problems are of a general nature, he has the other members of his faculty with whom to advise, but, when his difficulties and ideas are peculiar to his own field or fields, he stands alone.

In this area co-operative activities also may be of assistance. The setting-up of teachers' clubs in rural areas which include in their membership teachers from several schools is not uncommon, so that a precedent exists for the organization of interschool departments. Such groups ought to be teacher directed. They ought, further, to concern themselves with questions of teaching method and curriculum practices and to give little, if any, attention to the administrative matters which frequently consume a large measure of the energies of school departments. While the plan is in process of development, department chairmen should be elected by the various groups, but eventually it might prove advisable to appoint formally a department head who would have the responsibilities ordinarily associated with that position.

A system of interschool departments would certainly contribute much to the professional growth of teachers in small schools. For example, as has already been noted, teachers entering small schools frequently have had little, if any, previous teaching experience. To be able to associate with a professional group of the type recommended would aid the new and inexperienced teacher in adjusting himself to the novel situation and would give him another group more specialized in character, besides his own faculty, upon which to call for advice. The interschool department should prove to be of as much value to the schools in their entirety as to individual teachers. For one thing, as has been stated, it is difficult to maintain year-to-year continuity in the program of the small school. It is unlikely, however, that an entire department would be changed in any one year, so that it and its plans would be a powerful device for

securing the desired continuity. Furthermore, it is well known that the small school is usually powerless to provide its teachers direct in-service training and adequate supervision. Interschool groups, even though informal in nature, could make a contribution here. It is unlikely that they could provide any personal supervision of classroom teaching, but the opportunity to discuss plans and ideas is frequently a much more worth-while supervisory practice than is direct observation.

There are many activities which cannot be engaged in with any success by the individual teacher—or the individual small school—which the co-operative department could readily sponsor. A single instance, curriculum-making, will serve to make this point clear. Work in this field is too complex and too exacting to be satisfactorily carried on by a single teacher or even an entire small school. It may be that an interschool department could not do a thoroughly expert job of curriculum revision, but whatever it could do would be an improvement over conditions which customarily prevail. Each of the schools in the co-operative would profit in some measure from the abilities and the ideas of all the teachers to be found in all the schools making up the group.

"STRETCHING" EQUIPMENT THROUGH A CO-OPERATIVE

A second major problem confronting the small high school is the securing of an adequate supply of the materials of instruction. The small school is likely to find itself handicapped in one or both of two respects: it cannot provide all the different kinds of materials needed, and of a particular kind it cannot secure a sufficient amount. The attempt of the school to meet both these problems at once is likely to mean that its situation is little, if any, improved by the effort. In addition to the difficulty of securing funds with which to purchase sufficient equipment, the small school is confronted with the problem of making economical use of whatever it does have, especially in the instance of semipermanent materials, such as textbooks and laboratory instruments. Even inexpensive supplementary materials may be relatively costly because they can be used for so small a portion of the time.

A co-operative program following the general plan proposed in

connection with personnel can no doubt do much to extend the physical resources of the small secondary school. Since they perhaps offer as rich a field for co-operation as any, the natural sciences can be used for illustrative purposes.¹ While every school which attempts to give instruction in the sciences must have constantly available a basic collection of equipment, there will be many things, often costly, which are needed for only brief periods in the course of the year. These the small school usually feels it cannot afford to purchase both because of cost and because of the infrequency with which they are used. The upshot of the matter customarily is that the school either makes no attempt to secure this type of material or tries patiently, but not very effectively, to accumulate it over a period of years. The burden of purchasing this equipment could be perfectly well distributed among several small schools. On the basis of a study of the laboratory needs, it could be determined what are the most pressing deficiencies common to all the co-operating schools. Let each of the schools agree, then, to set aside from its annual appropriation for equipment a fixed amount to purchase part of the material needed.² To circulate these materials would, of course, necessitate some reorganization of the science courses as far as the order of topics is concerned, but this adjustment would not be difficult. By such a plan each school would have access to far more equipment, particularly that used in lecture-demonstrations, than it ever could hope to secure through its own unaided efforts.

The same general procedure could, with perhaps even greater ease, be applied to supplementary textbooks and other collateral references for all courses that the schools offer. By cajoling the authorities or economizing elsewhere, the small school may manage to procure a few copies of this or that for its English or social-studies courses. The result probably is that, although a fairly substantial sum of money is spent by a number of neighboring schools, no one school is much helped by this hit-or-miss plan. Would it not be more sensible and effective for several schools to determine their common

¹ The author wishes to acknowledge the suggestions given to him in this connection by Mr. B. S. Tyndal, of the State Teachers College, Bridgewater, Massachusetts.

² Theoretically, it presumably would be better if such material were to be owned in common. Practically, individual ownership will be more feasible.

needs and then to divide the burden? This procedure, in essence, is the general practice on the part of large school systems and should be equally practicable among small schools.

This last point may be extended to include the visual and auditory aids which are so important in modern classroom methods. Of course, many of these aids can and should be homemade, and they may then be relatively inexpensive. Sooner or later the point is reached where factory-made materials must be had, and these will be costly. Moving-picture equipment is a case in point. For the most part, small schools have been forced to beg or to borrow most of the films and slides that they have used. While this practice is not harmful, it clearly does not make for a well-defined and regular program of visual education. To supplement this policy it becomes increasingly necessary for the school to build up its own library of films and slides. In the case of small schools this library can be constructed most effectively and economically on the co-operative plan.

While the economical purchase of materials is under consideration, it may be well to observe that co-operative buying may reduce expenses somewhat in connection with some of the more everyday aspects of school administration. To take a single, minor example, because of the small number of printed forms used, the small school is likely to find it unduly expensive to design forms and consequently must fall back on ready-made types. If a number of schools could agree on the design of a particular form, to have it made up should prove to be little, if any, more costly than the ready-made article.

OTHER ADVANTAGES OF A CO-OPERATIVE

The suggestions for co-operation that have thus far been made have had to do primarily with means which can be employed to enable the small secondary school to get more for its money in personnel and materials. There are, in addition, profitable sources of co-operation only distantly related to financial considerations. For one thing, it should not be too difficult to apply the plan in some degree to the extra-curriculum field. As an illustration, public dramatic performances are much in favor as school activities. In the small high school to prepare for an entire evening's performance taxes both teachers and pupils severely, but a group of one-act plays prepared by the schools in a co-operative and circulated through the

communities would be just as valuable from the entertainment and educational points of view while reducing the load carried by the individual school. Distances between schools may seem to make it unwise to attempt to organize a club program on an interschool basis; but, even though such organizations might be clumsy and difficult to manage, it would be better than providing pupils in rural high schools with little or none of this type of experience.

School-and-community groups may be sufficiently difficult to establish and keep alive in a single town without trying to increase their scope to include several towns. In spite of evident difficulties, such groups would have their values, for example, in promoting the type of co-operative endeavor recommended in this article.

An interschool council could be of service to administrators in the same way that interschool departments can help the teacher. Such a council would provide a good environment for airing and examining professional ideas, for planning individual or joint attacks on various school problems, and for devising ways in which the co-operative idea can be extended. Research and experimentation are likely to be practically beyond the reach of the small high school, but there are many phases of their work which can be investigated or experimented with satisfactorily if several schools work together.

GETTING A CO-OPERATIVE TO WORK

The author makes no pretense that the ideas presented in this article are highly original. The suggestions made, or other practices essentially similar, can be found in operation in schools scattered over the country; but in few instances has a conscientious attempt been made to exploit to the full the promise inherent in a co-operative approach to a solution of the difficulties with which the small high school is faced. Not infrequently whatever sharing of resources is indulged in is looked on as a regrettable and a temporary concession to the force of circumstances rather than as a highly intelligent and economical way of handling affairs. Self-sufficiency is no more a virtue in school work than in national affairs. It is easy to place the blame for the isolated position of the small high school on the prejudices of the public. Actually, the responsibility for the present state of affairs may belong to the school administrator who, along with his public, cannot see beyond the boundaries of his own school district.

PROFESSIONAL TRAINING REQUIRED FOR AN INITIAL SECONDARY-SCHOOL TEACHER'S CERTIFICATE

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★

IN ORDER to obtain a state certificate to teach, one must fulfil certain requirements. These requirements include professional training courses in education. The amount and the specific courses in education vary in the several states. In recent years there has been a slight increase, in the main, in the amount of professional training which is required by the states. At the same time articles have appeared, both in lay magazines¹ and in professional publications,² which disparage the emphasis on professional courses as a prerequisite to teaching. As a first step toward clarifying the issue, it is necessary to know what professional training the states are requiring of applicants for certificates to teach. It is the purpose of this article to supply such information.

Since 1933 the writer has collaborated in a publication which annually sets forth summaries of the minimum requirements necessary for obtaining initial certificates to teach in secondary schools throughout the United States.³ As a means of insuring accuracy,

¹ "I Didn't Have a Teacher's License," *Harpers Magazine*, CLXXVI (February, 1938), 291-97.

² a) Association of Colleges and Universities of the State of New York, "Report of the Committee on the Preparation of Teachers," *New York State Education*, XXIV (December, 1936), 234-39.

b) Virginia C. Gildersleeve, "State Requirements That Discourage Educated Persons from Teaching," *Educational Record*, Supplement No. 9, XVII (January, 1936), 34-43.

c) Henry W. Holmes, "The English Teacher and Educational Theory: The Sorry Business of Meeting State Requirements," *School and Society*, XLVIII (August 6, 1938), 177-79.

d) Alan Valentine, "Teacher Training versus Teacher Education," *Educational Record*, XIX (July, 1938), 332-45.

³ Robert C. Woellner and M. Aurilla Wood, *State Requirements for Teaching Certificates* (1933); ———, *Requirements for Teaching Certificates* (1935); ———, *Require-*

the summaries which have been published have been approved each year by state certifying functionaries. It is felt that this procedure is necessary because state laws and regulations are not readily digested into easily understood summaries. The information in the following paragraphs concerning the professional training required of persons seeking state teachers' certificates was assembled from these summaries.

TABLE 1

MEAN NUMBERS OF SEMESTER HOURS OF PROFESSIONAL TRAINING
REQUIRED FOR INITIAL SECONDARY-SCHOOL
TEACHER'S CERTIFICATE

Geographical Area*	1933	1938	Increase
New England†	12.0	12.4	0.4
Middle (eastern) States‡	17.0	18.8	1.8
Southern States§	19.1	18.0	-1.1
North Central States	16.0	17.1	1.1
Northwest States¶	15.3	16.2	0.9
All states	16.4	16.9	0.5

* The groupings of the states are made according to geographic areas included within the accrediting associations.

† Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and Vermont. Rhode Island, where the requirements are four hundred clock hours plus practice teaching experience for both 1933 and 1938, is not included in the table.

‡ Delaware, Maryland, New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania.

§ Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, and Virginia.

|| Arizona, Arkansas, Colorado, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, New Mexico, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, South Dakota, West Virginia, Wisconsin, and Wyoming.

¶ California, Idaho, Montana, Oregon, Utah, and Washington. Nevada, which did not change its requirement of eighteen hours, is not included.

The mean numbers of semester hours in education which in the years 1933 and 1938 were required by the states of those seeking initial certificates to teach in secondary schools are shown in Table 1. A comparison of the figures for 1933 with those for the year 1938 shows an increase of 0.5 of a semester hour in the requirements of professional training for the nation as a whole. Every section of the country reflects an increase except the states which in Table 1 are included in the southern group. There was a decrease of 1.1 semester hours in these southern states. The states which are here designated

ments for Certification of Teachers in the Various States and by the Accrediting Associations (1936); ———, Requirements for Teaching Certificates (1936); ———, Requirements for Teaching Certificates (1938). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

as Middle (eastern) states had the largest increase during the past five years. This increase, however, is entirely accounted for by the increase in the requirements of the state of New Jersey.

In 1938 the states, on the average, required 16.9 semester hours of professional training of persons who sought secondary-school certificates. In most colleges this amount represents about a half-year of study. In other words, persons who wish to teach can devote

TABLE 2
NUMBER OF STATES (INCLUDING DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA) WHICH REQUIRE
OR MENTION SPECIFIC PROFESSIONAL COURSES FOR INITIAL
SECONDARY-SCHOOL TEACHER'S CERTIFICATE

COURSE	NUMBER OF STATES IN 1933		NUMBER OF STATES IN 1938	
	Requiring Course	Mentioning Course as Elective	Requiring Course	Mentioning Course as Elective
Practice teaching	33	2	37	2
Educational psychology	35	37
Materials and methods	25	25
Principles of education	19	23
Local school laws and state constitu- tions	10	8
Tests and measurements	8	6	6	8
Philosophy of education	7	3	8	6

seven-eighths of the four-year college course to purely academic study and one-eighth of the time to training which is deemed essential to effective teaching.

The professional training requirements of the states are not expressed alone in terms of semester hours. Frequently the state laws require that the professional training of applicants for certificates shall include specific courses in education. In Table 2 appear some of the more commonly designated courses in education which were required or specifically mentioned in the state regulations for 1933 and 1938. During the past five years practice teaching, educational psychology, and principles of education have become increasingly popular with those who determine the state certification policies.

The titles of courses in education, as is true of all college courses,

do not convey a definite concept of the content of such courses. There is no unanimity of opinion, either on the part of institutions which train teachers or among the state certification authorities, as to the content of courses in education. The title "educational psychology," for instance, is given to a wide variety of courses, all of which are approved or rejected by state certification functionaries without much detailed knowledge of the content of the courses. In the light of the adverse criticism of professional training, one means of clarifying the situation would be to arrive at a common understanding of what is meant by specific courses in education. Some persons who apply for certificates, as well as those who question the emphasis on teacher training, feel that the interpretation of professional training is distinctly arbitrary. A pooling of the judgments of leaders in teacher training and of state certification authorities which would lead to a generally acceptable definition of courses required for teacher certificates would much improve teacher certification.

WHAT ABILITIES ARE STRESSED IN WORKBOOKS IN HISTORY?

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A PROJECT IN EVALUATING WORKBOOKS IN HISTORY

A SURVEY of the articles which have appeared during the past few years on the subject of workbooks reveals not only that their value is a controversial matter but also that much of the argument over them is subjective in nature. The research on which the present report is based was made for the purpose of contributing specific data for the further evaluation of workbooks in one field, namely, history.

A total of forty-three workbooks was chosen—twelve in junior high school history, thirteen in American history for the senior high school, and eighteen in world-history, ancient history, or European history for the senior high school. The selection, in order that it might be truly representative, was limited to materials published between 1926 and 1936, the period in which most workbooks in history appeared. Insofar as possible the latest book, and only one, of each author was used. Workbooks which obviously were composed only of map work, lists of topics, or review guides were omitted in favor of those containing many learning exercises.

ANALYSIS FOR ABILITIES

The workbook, by whatever name it is called, is regarded as a guide to study. The importance of knowing how well this instructional tool is achieving the best objectives of study is, therefore, apparent. A perusal of the pertinent literature reveals that certain abilities should be the results of study and that these abilities are developed by means of learning exercises set before the pupil. The investigation of the workbooks, consequently, was focused on these learning exercises in an attempt to discover the relative amount of

emphasis given by authors to particular abilities and to compare various classifications of workbooks in this respect.

Selecting, classifying, and defining the abilities which were to serve as a basis for the analysis proved to be a rather subjective affair. At the outset an effort was made to frame a classification which would harmonize in content and arrangement with the opin-

TABLE 1

DISTRIBUTION OF 23,840 LEARNING EXERCISES IN 43 WORKBOOKS
IN HISTORY ACCORDING TO THE STUDY ABILITIES THAT
THEY ARE INTENDED TO DEVELOP

Ability	Number	Per Cent
Collecting data.....	10,093	42.3
Remembering.....	2,346	9.8
Expressing one's self.....	2,305	9.7
Observing.....	1,506	6.3
Organizing.....	1,403	5.9
*Comparing.....	1,298	5.4
*Finding causal relationships.....	1,101	4.6
*Judging or evaluating.....	931	3.9
*Explaining a conclusion.....	727	3.1
Comprehending.....	695	2.9
Imagining.....	495	2.1
*Drawing conclusions from data.....	475	2.0
*Analyzing.....	182	.8
*Drawing inferences.....	110	.5
*Initiating.....	99	.4
Classifying.....	43	.2
*Applying conclusions.....	31	0.1
Total.....	23,840	100.0

* Problem-solving abilities, as explained in the text.

ions of psychologists, experts on the subject of study, and other research workers. Any such classification was soon found to be impossible because of the great disagreement among these authorities. The list finally set up, which is found in Table 1, is further complicated by the fact that it includes both mental abilities and abilities not primarily mental. The investigator, with others, recognizes that these are not entirely separate, one from another, and also that their definitions are subjective, although in most cases the definition chosen reflects the opinion of a recognized authority rather than that of the investigator only. The interpretation of the conclusions

must necessarily rest on these definitions, an explanation of which involves a discussion too detailed for this article.

THE ABILITIES REPRESENTED

A total of 23,840 learning exercises was found, with much variety in the abilities for which provisions are made. Some workbooks contain three times as many types as others. The average book contains about half as many as the classification set up in this investigation. Likewise, there is great variation in the amount of emphasis given to each ability, as is indicated in Table 1.

From the data in the table certain facts are clear. Learning exercises in history workbooks in high school are devoted chiefly to the ability to collect data, 42.3 per cent of all exercises being used to develop this ability. This percentage of emphasis is more than four times that given to any other ability. Inspection of the original data reveals that the great bulk of stress is given to reading, frequently described as a tool rather than a part of the thought-process. Certain questions inevitably suggest themselves: Are workbooks requiring pupils to spend so much time on reading for facts that they never get beyond such reading? Is reading ability of this type so poor among high-school pupils that training in this technique must take precedence over all others? Do the exercises guarantee real training in reading? Are the most functional facts being collected? Are these facts being used for problem-solving, or are they being collected for their own sake? Inasmuch as the ability to read for facts is a necessary feature of almost any learning exercise, regardless of the ability that it aims to develop, is there not an undue emphasis on this ability in itself?

FURTHER OBSERVATIONS

Recognizing the possibility that emphasis on reading may be more justifiable at the beginning of a course than toward the end, because of the need for correct study habits at the outset, the investigator inspected the data for each workbook to discover whether authors are guided by that need and whether, therefore, they devote less space to this ability as the course progresses from unit to unit. In no case could such a trend be identified. One may conclude that the authors do not expect pupils to improve noticeably in reading

ability as a result of having prepared these exercises, and one is justified in wondering whether the exercises really are planned to develop reading ability—whether, in fact, they reflect any plan.

The data in the table indicate that remembering, expressing one's self, observing, and organizing, in that order, are among the first five abilities stressed. These, with collecting data, absorb nearly three-fourths of all the exercises; yet none of these abilities is commonly recognized as a part of the thought-process so much as an aid to it. Those which can be identified positively as problem-solving abilities (starred items in the table) involve only an approximate 20 per cent of all exercises. The writer does not intend to imply that non-problem-solving abilities are not important. Memory seems to furnish many of the necessary materials for thinking even though it is considered a simple ability; the same might be said for observing. Organizing, insofar as it involves grouping, is considered an essential feature of reflective thinking. Expression of ideas may serve either to clarify or to check one's thinking. The significance of the findings lies not in the desirability of training these abilities but rather in the amount of attention given to them and in the abilities which are being sacrificed in their interest. Volumes have been written about the goals of education, the purposes of study, and the objectives of the study of history in particular, and the positive trend in this kind of literature is away from factual outcomes and toward methods of using facts.

Among the problem-solving abilities given attention in the workbooks studied, comparison is the most popular. Is this ability the most easily achieved when training is given in reflective thinking? Explaining conclusions is given more attention than drawing conclusions from data, a situation which psychologists probably would regard as normal. Applying conclusions receives still less emphasis, also a normal condition according to the best opinion. Special attention may be directed to the small provision made for developing the ability to initiate. Many teachers believe that there is a relation between this ability and the amount of interest manifested by children. Ability to initiate projects is a distinguishing trait of superior students, and its importance for leadership in a democratic society can scarcely be overemphasized.

Workbooks for the junior and senior high school agree substantially, especially on the ability to collect data. Authors evidently feel it as necessary to train in this ability at one grade level as at the other. The ability to observe characterizes fewer exercises in workbooks for the senior high school than for the junior high school. Apparently the assumption is that the ability to observe has been mastered somewhat by the time the child enters on his last years of secondary education and that he may, therefore, turn more attention to the development of other abilities. In harmony with this assumption, comparing, explaining conclusions, and analyzing receive slightly higher emphasis at the upper level.

Workbooks in American history and in world-history show similar tendencies. The latter, however, emphasize comparison and finding causal relationships more than do the former and, in general, give noticeably more attention to problem-solving abilities. Nevertheless, the differences between the various types of workbooks are not so significant as the similarities.

On the other hand, when one reviews the separate abilities, differences are more important than similarities. Only four abilities—observing, collecting data, judging, and comparing—are recognized by all workbook authors. Although two of these are fact-finding and two problem-solving abilities, a glance at the percentages reminds the reader that the former receive by far the greater emphasis. There is much greater disagreement with respect to some abilities than others; in general, the widest differences in usage are found among abilities receiving the most emphasis. The ability to memorize is a conspicuous example of this conclusion: nine workbooks make no provision for memorizing, while one devotes nearly 60 per cent of its exercises to the ability. These extremes are evidence of the controversy which exists over the memorizing of facts in history.

One may conclude that workbooks offer a great number of exercises which provide training in a variety of abilities and that, although they disagree individually on the amount of emphasis given to each ability, the tendency to stress non-problem-solving abilities is the dominating characteristic when the books are considered collectively.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE EVIDENCE

What do these facts mean? Chiefly they suggest the following inferences:

1. The neglect of problem-solving abilities persists in spite of the warnings of psychologists and experts on the subject of study. Great effort should be made to establish objectively the relative values of various abilities, in whatever field they may function. The standards that exist seem to be largely subjective in character, and they are not in enough agreement to command the consideration of authors who are undertaking such a project as a workbook.

2. The fact that the emphasis from grade to grade or unit to unit does not vary significantly suggests the need for more research which will determine (a) the abilities which are appropriate to various grade or age levels, (b) the abilities which lend themselves best to training, and (c) the best techniques for developing these abilities.

3. The proper relation between reading and other abilities apparently needs decision. Writers of workbooks seem to assume either that reading is four times as important as any other ability which high-school pupils might develop or that the pupils' deficiency in this skill requires postponement of the development of other abilities.

4. The workbook, if it is to continue as an instrument of instruction, should be carefully planned and tested in order that it may correspond more closely than it now does to the principles of psychology and to standards of good teaching.

A SPECIALLY ADJUSTED COURSE IN PERSONAL AND SOCIAL PROBLEMS

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BEGINNINGS IN CURRICULUM ADJUSTMENT

THE last ten or fifteen years have seen a great change in the character of the population of Evanston, Illinois. There has been an influx of people who are in the lower income groups. The status of the community, economically, socially, and educationally, has been approaching the average of that of the country as a whole.

This change has necessarily been reflected in the school population, including that of the Evanston Township High School. Evanston Township High School was at one time predominantly a college-preparatory school, 80 or 90 per cent of its graduates being fortunate enough to go on to colleges or universities. In recent years the proportion of the pupils coming from homes in which cultural and economic opportunities have been limited is much larger than it formerly was.

In an effort to meet the needs of these pupils, the school began about six years ago to adapt its curriculum by the addition of "special opportunity" courses. A rather complete discussion of these courses may be found in a bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals.¹ Suffice it to say here that these courses, which the pupils enter with the understanding that they will not be regarded as college preparation by most institutions of higher learning, are adjusted to the abilities of boys and girls who are not "academically minded." In other words, these courses are designed for pupils who cannot pass the regular work and whose response to school is negative.

¹ "The English Curriculum for Low-Ability Groups at Evanston Township High School," *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals*, XX (December, 1936), 8-41.

A NEW TWO-PERIOD COURSE

More recently certain members of the staff felt that at least one more step in this direction needed to be taken. Although the fourth year of high school represented terminal education for most of the pupils in these courses, many of the courses themselves were still essentially college-preparatory in nature. In the year following graduation most of these pupils would be looking for jobs; they would be faced with the problem of wisely expending their incomes, if they were fortunate enough to have any; a few would be getting married; all would need to know something about conserving their physical and mental resources; a comparatively small number would continue formal education of the academic type. It was felt, therefore, that the Senior year was ripe for change. Consequently the school offered, instead of the fourth year of English and a course in social science usually elected by most of this group, a double-period course called, for want of a better name, "Personal and Social Problems."

This change was preceded by almost a year of study of the situation. A committee of interested teachers met weekly to plan what the content of the course should be. They came to the conclusion that subject-matter lines should be obliterated and that activities should "take nothing for granted except the facts of the situation, which in this case consisted of (1) the Senior students who were about to end their formal education at the end of the year, (2) the kind and amount of schooling they had already had, (3) the unsolved and often unconsidered problems with which the world faced them." This committee, aided by pupils who were then Seniors in school, compiled lists of hundreds of questions covering a great many phases of modern life. Some examples follow.

What kinds of work are available to the high-school graduate in the Chicago community, and what kind of personal future is there in that work?

What are the respective obligations of employer and employee in a satisfactory working relationship?

What kinds of spare-time special training can be had cheaply while one holds a steady job?

How can one manage income so as to preserve good credit?

What are some of the more foolish ways in which people spend beyond their incomes?

What solutions may there be to the problem of living with relatives when one is the head of a family or an income-earner in one's own family?

What are some of the ways in which a young person can become a desirable and an influential member of a neighborhood?

What are some of the principal sanities of living which help to keep one in good mental and physical health?

THE FOUR MAIN AREAS

When this list of questions had been subjected to rather careful scrutiny, it seemed feasible to arrange all the items under four main areas of human living. Organized and restated in more general terms, the list follows.

AREA I. EARNING A LIVING

- A. The problem of preparing one's self, both specifically and generally, for earning one's living
- B. The problems of finding employment, of shrewd choosing, and wise application for positions
- C. The problem of continued education with the view toward personal advancement in employment
- D. The problems of labor, management, income, old-age provisions, technological unemployment, and the personal implications involved
- E. The problem, approached by the interested *individual*, of applying the general study to himself and to the particular job or field of employment in which he is likely to become involved

AREA II. HANDLING INCOME

- A. The problem of allocating financial responsibility among the members of a family
- B. Planning the use of an income in terms of present and future needs
- C. Methods of spending as they affect personal credit and financial stability: charge accounts, instalments, carrying charges, etc.
- D. The problem of housing and of home financing
- E. The financial problems of health and medical care
- F. Insurance and provisions for the future
- G. Banking, borrowing, and the general "handling" of money
- H. The problem of wise purchasing, including the study of advertising, bargain sales, and the evaluation of consumer advisory services and of co-operatives
- I. The economical treatment of the home and of personal property

AREA III. LIVING WITH OTHERS

- A. Relationships within the family as now constituted (from the pupil's present point of view)

- B. The problem of becoming personally acceptable to other people, including manners, dress, and mental attitudes
- C. The problems of boy and girl association
- D. The problems of adjustment in married life
- E. One's relation to the neighborhood and to the larger community, that is, to specific church, business, social, patriotic, political, and philanthropic groups
- F. The problems of getting unprejudiced information and of arriving at unbiased judgments on national and international questions
- G. Problems of religion, race, crime, and other aspects of society

AREA IV. PERSONAL CARE

- A. The maintenance of physical well-being (positive health)
- B. Medication, hospitalization, and special services
- C. Mental health, both preventive and curative
- D. Self-medication and first aid and the dangers of quackery
- E. Problems of home sanitation and of public health

It can be seen at a glance that this outline includes far more than could possibly be covered in a single year. The intention of the committee, however, was not that the list should be used as a syllabus; rather it was meant to serve as a guide for pupil and teacher.

PROCEDURES IN THE COURSE

The course was inaugurated in September, 1937. There were two sections with about twenty-five pupils in each group. One section met during the first two periods in the morning (an hour and a half) under the guidance of a member of the English department of the school. The other section met during the last two periods of the day with a commercial teacher as instructor.

Although both sections had access to the same materials of instruction, the two teachers had agreed beforehand to make no attempt to keep together on topics covered and techniques employed, feeling that they could explore more ground if each group chose its own way. The teachers, of course, conferred frequently and were able to give each other suggestions about how to approach certain problems and how to overcome certain difficulties in handling the problems.

In the course of the year's work the two groups experimented with many methods in the search for the solutions to their questions.

Sometimes the entire class would devote itself to the study of a single phase of one problem. At other times groups in the class acted as committees for the investigation of related problems. More often pupils conducted independent inquiries in one topic after the class had explored its possibilities and organized it to the best of their ability.

Class time was taken up with study, individual and group reports, round-table and panel discussions, formal debates, and occasionally some of the more formal types of class activities. Usually, however, the class procedure was as informal as circumstances would permit. The classes made use of moving pictures, slides, charts, and other visual aids. Occasionally it was possible to arrange for demonstrations of devices which they were studying, such as electric meters, stenotype machines, and materials and tools used in the pursuit of various hobbies.

Instructors and pupils made arrangements for talks to the class by representatives of civic and business organizations, trade and business schools, and by other faculty members in the school. Sometimes these talks could be correlated with the work being done in class. At other times it was a question of taking advantage of the opportunity to hear a worth-while presentation of some important topic. Occasionally the activities and incidents of school life presented situations that were full of social significance. Needless to say, these occurrences provoked discussion that needed little stimulus from the teacher. The classes made trips to interesting places in Evanston and in Chicago, such as the local consumers' co-operative, the stockyards, broadcasting studios, the municipal court, and the public library.

Toward the end of the year experience indicated that a certain generalized method of procedure proved more profitable and economical than certain others. Although this approach was not followed in the study of every problem, it was found to be most suitable in the majority of cases. Briefly, the following steps were involved: (1) selection by the class of problems to be studied for two or three months ahead and allotment of time to these problems; (2) preliminary consideration, organization, and statement of the main problem; (3) selection by a pupil, or allocation to him by the

teacher or the class, of one phase of the problem suited to his interest, knowledge, or experience; (4) investigation by the pupil through reading, interviews, or observation; (5) oral report by the pupil to the class (usually there was time for about three reports during the double period); (6) criticism and discussion of the report by the class; (7) written summary of the report, which was left with the teacher a few days later; (8) return of the report to the pupil with the teacher's comments on organization, content, and form; (9) filing of the report with the teacher after the pupil had noted the criticisms and comments.

Shortly before the end of each marking period the teacher submitted to each pupil a written estimate of the pupil's progress, interest, initiative, value of the work to the pupil, and amount and quality of work done. The pupil then indicated his own estimate of his work on the same sheet and returned it to the teacher. Any appreciable difference in judgment was followed by a conference between teacher and pupil.

It was quite natural that the study of various major problems should be attended by varying degrees of success. Lack of interest on the part of some members of the class, insufficient planning, inability to see the fundamentals of some issues, difficulty in securing really objective information on subjects in fields which were partially or wholly controversial—all these were obstacles which were not always successfully surmounted. Again, it should be remembered that this class was not an average group, that the school was not set up to give time and materials to a course such as this, and that the switch from a more or less conventional situation in other classes to a rather novel situation here must have been rather confusing.

On the other hand, certain topics, such as recreation, consumer education, and getting a job, all of which were studied during the second semester when the class had begun "to get its second wind," were handled enthusiastically and, on the whole, adequately.

The omnipresent questions, "What sort of job shall I try to get?" and "How can I get it?" were not tackled until about two months before the close of school. As a preliminary, the class collected information about the fifty Seniors of the year before who had taken "special opportunity" courses in English and social studies. They

discovered that a few were in college or trade or business schools, that a few were unemployed, but that most of them were working. These graduates were able to supply some ideas about jobs—ideas which were not at all theoretical. The class then made a canvass of the types of work to be had in the Chicago and the Evanston areas, confining its findings, wherever possible, to facts and figures. Persons with personnel and placement experience were asked to come in and present what they knew.

Representatives of schools of various types—trade, business, and art—spoke on what their schools had to offer the high-school graduate. Naturally many questions were brought up during and after these talks. Interested members of the class reported on other schools and colleges, stressing such information as entrance requirements, costs of attending, and types of instruction offered. All this exploration grew out of the problem of job-hunting.

The final month was devoted to a study of consumer problems. Every effort was made to conduct these studies on a functional basis. For example, two or three of the boys were contemplating the purchase of suits for graduation. It was natural that they should want to investigate values in men's clothing. A girl chose to find out about mechanical refrigerators because her family was in the market for one. Food, cameras, furniture, electrical appliances, automobile tires, gasoline and oil, and other items were also chosen as the interests, and particularly the needs, of pupils dictated. The questions raised were far from academic, and possibly some of the pupils forgot for a time that they were in a schoolroom.

APPRAISING THE NEW COURSE

To what degree was the course successful?

Near the end of the first semester the pupils were asked to evaluate the work that they had been doing and the manner in which they had been doing it. Their unfavorable reactions may be summarized as follows: (1) "Not enough courtesy"; (2) "Not enough co-operation"; (3) "Not enough to do"; (4) "Lack of academic work, such as grammar, themes, etc."

They listed as advantages the following: (1) "Informality"; (2) "Individual interests recognized"; (3) "Independence of indi-

viduals"; (4) "Self-expression made easier"; (5) "Speech practice and criticism obtained"; (6) "Democratic atmosphere."

These responses indicated a recognition by the class of the need for courtesy, co-operation, and direction. It can be seen that some pupils were still thinking in terms of what they had been doing or were doing in other classes. Those who had not yet learned to think and plan for themselves found "not enough to do." On the other hand, it is apparent that certain pupils were appreciative of the opportunity to work in a manner and on a project to a large extent of their own determination. There was a growing perception that one might disagree with the opinions of others and yet respect the persons who possessed the opinions.

During the last week of school the members of the group were asked to comment again on what they thought of the course. A more detailed summary than that above reveals the following. Among the objections were: "Too much chance to loaf and not enough to do," and, two or three times, "The work should have more direction and be better defined."

Among the favorable comments were: (1) "Gives the opportunity to those who like to do individual work." (2) "I realized that almost any job requires further education." (3) "I became interested in the interests of others." (4) "I hope this type of class will be more widely used in school. It took me a long time to get started." (5) "It is an opportunity to find out what others think of you." (6) "The study of consumer problems was most helpful." (7) "Valuable to the person with the will to work." (8) "Remember the things better than if studied from books." (9) "Learned about working alone."

The following two statements occurred most frequently: (1) "I learned a lot of practical things which will be of value when school is over." (2) "It helped me to overcome the fear of talking to a group."

These remarks seem to indicate on the part of some pupils an increasing awareness of themselves as individuals and a realization of the fact that each would become simply what he made of himself. There is probably less tendency to think of what was done as school work. If there was any single gain recognized by nearly everyone,

it was the acquiring of confidence to speak informally before the class. This gain was very noticeable.

Apparently a certain number of pupils never did find themselves, as is shown by the comment, "Too much chance to loaf and not enough to do." In view of the nature of the population of the two classes, this remark is almost inevitable. Another adverse criticism, that the course lacked direction, is encouraging because it suggests a critical attitude toward what was done.

As to the writer's own opinion regarding the degree to which the course was successful, there is much that could be hazarded and a few things that could be set down with assurance.

On the debit side of the ledger it should be recorded that several members of the two classes went at the work with the idea of "getting by." As has been said before, this attitude was, no doubt, the result chiefly of two things: the type of pupil and the novelty of the situation. Extension of the individual-project procedure into "special opportunity" courses in the lower grades might help.

On the credit side it can be said that the informality of the group resulted in some really stimulating discussions. A few parents reported that their children were overcoming some of their shyness and that they seemed to like this part of their school work better. Many in the class developed a certain degree of critical ability in reading and listening. In view of the increasing importance of the radio in our lives, this latter outcome is valuable. Finally, a few pupils acquired some skill in carrying on independent investigations. Their activities were repayment, to a large extent, for the planning that had gone into the course from its inception. These pupils were a little better prepared to cope with some of the problems that they were to meet. It is almost superfluous to point out that the course was educative for the teacher as well as the pupils.

"Personal and Social Problems" is now in its second year. There have been some modifications, and undoubtedly there will be many more. Continuing modification is to be expected when, as one observer put it to the teacher, "The whole world is your oyster."

SELECTED REFERENCES ON THE EXTRA-CURRICULUM¹

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THE list of forty-nine references that is given below includes two books, one monograph, two selections from bulletins, and forty-four articles from professional magazines. Most of the material is quantitative in nature, but it has been deemed desirable to include in the references other types of material describing rare or innovating practices that may stimulate forward-looking schools to attempt novel or more effective types of work in this field.

Worthy of special mention is the fact that it is, apparently, becoming more and more difficult to distinguish between the curriculum and the extra-curriculum. Students of the latter are well aware of the fact that for some years a well-defined tendency has existed for extra-curriculum activities, particularly activities of certain kinds, to become curricularized.² Several of the publications of the past year suggest that this tendency is not declining. Hand's book (mentioned in footnote 1 on this page) and White's article, for example, both describe cases where groups of pupil leaders were organized into regular classes in order that they might be in better position to prosecute the study of the problems which their elected responsibilities imposed. Hieble's report (mentioned in footnote 1 on this page) shows, on the other hand, how the work of a modern-language club grew out of class work. In this instance the extra-curriculum grew out of the curriculum; in the former, the curriculum grew out of

¹ See also Item 501 (Bell) in the list of selected references appearing in the October, 1938, number of the *School Review*; Items 572 (Hand) and 587 (Lamar) in the December, 1938, number; Item 28 (Jessen) in the January, 1939, number; and Item 194 (Hieble) in the February, 1939, number.

² Galen Jones, *Extra-curricular Activities in Relation to the Curriculum*, chap. iv. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 667. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935.

the extra-curriculum; in both instances each served the other. In this connection it may not be amiss to call attention to the fact that the effect of many of the innovating practices in respect to the curriculum, which have been stimulated greatly in recent years by progressive-education groups, is to make the work of regular classes assume aspects that are characteristic of extra-curriculum activities, such as giving larger scope to pupil initiative in the selection of study problems and encouraging group co-operation in the attack on problems. Eventually these two sides of the school's life may become so thoroughly integrated that teachers will be no longer concerned with the question of what is one and what is the other but rather with the simple question: What is the best way to teach the pupils the things that they want, and ought to be able, to do?

314. "An Annual Conference of Student Councils," *School Review*, XLVI (May, 1938), 321-23.

A brief account of the activities of 257 pupil delegates who attended the tenth annual conference of the Federation of Student Councils of the Central States which was held at the Central High School, St. Joseph, Missouri.

315. BRIGGS, EUGENE S. "Extra Class Activities Offered in State Teachers Colleges," *Education*, LVIII (January, 1938), 307-11.

Reports statistically a questionnaire investigation of one hundred colleges with respect to the variety of student organizations available to teachers in training and the use which the institutions make of such opportunities in the guidance of students. Data are distributed according to enrolments and geographical areas.

316. BROWNING, R. W. "A Bicycle Club," *School Activities*, X (October, 1938), 66-67.

An interesting account of a promising effort, at the Manhattan Junior High School, Manhattan, Kansas, to promote safety in bicycle-riding.

317. CHAMBERS, M. M. "Organized Youth in America," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, XI (February, 1938), 351-59.

A valuable account of the numbers affected, the activities undertaken, and the material resources available to character-building, religious, political, fraternal, labor, and rural organizations for young people. Also an interesting discussion of the trend of youth's views on economic and social problems.

318. CHAMPINE, MARJORIE R. "National Youth Administration in the High School," *School Review*, XLVI (November, 1938), 679-84.

Compares one hundred pupils receiving aid from the National Youth Administration with the same number of non-N.Y.A. pupils. Participation in clubs is among the items compared.

319. CLINE, JUSTIN. "Hikers, Bikers, and Riders," *Nation's Schools*, XXI (February, 1938), 18-21.
An interesting description of the activities, governing conditions, growth, and facilities made available to young people in the United States by the Youth Hostel movement.
320. COSS, CLAY. "Discussion Clubs for Students," *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals*, XXII (October, 1938), 27-34.
A comprehensive discussion of the civic values, educational functions, methods of organization, and activities of student forums in the high school for the systematic discussion of contemporary social problems.
321. COURTENAY, MARY ETHEL. "The Persistence of Leadership," *School Review*, XLVI (February, 1938), 97-107.
A convincing statistical comparison of one hundred girl leaders in a Chicago high school with the same number of non-leaders with respect to further educational progress, offices held in college, range of occupation, salary, and post-school community service.
322. CULP, V. H. "Balance the Time Budget," *Journal of Education*, CXXI (April, 1938), 122-24.
Argues that, for the sake of the welfare of pupils and teachers alike, the administration of the school should take effective account of the amount of time demanded by extra-curriculum activities.
323. DIXON, FRED B. "Principals' Appraisal of the Home Room," *School Review*, XLVI (October, 1938), 619-22.
Reports statistically the opinions of seventy-three principals of senior high schools in twenty states on the value of the home-room work in their schools.
324. DURLAND, FRANCES. "The Child and Dramatics," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXVIII (June, 1938), 759-66.
An experimental examination of the effect on the behavior of children in dramatic activities of a number of factors, such as interplay of personalities, effect of the audience, previous experience, sense of humor, and use of foreign material.
325. EELS, WALTER CROSBY. "What Secondary-School Pupils Think of Pupil Activities," *Clearing House*, XII (April, 1938), 469-75.
Reports statistically the reactions of 17,000 pupils in 198 representative schools which participated in the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards to questions concerning the adequacy of the number of organizations, extent and value of their participation, the most satisfactory activities, etc.
326. EPLER, STEPHEN. "Intramural Six-Man Football," *Journal of Health and Physical Education*, IX (September, 1938), 430-32.
A brief description of this new game, its values in school and college, and of administration practices which will facilitate proper use of the game.

327. FROULA, V. K. "A Phase of Student Guidance," *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals*, XXII (February, 1938), 28-32.
Briefly describes the growth of a well-developed program of extra-curriculum activities at the Roosevelt High School, Seattle, Washington.
328. GOUDY, ELIZABETH. "Radio Comes to the Evening High School," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XIII (April, 1938), 226-29.
Describes a comparatively new type of activity which would fit in with the plans of student organizations of several types.
329. HAHN, JULIA L. "Hobby Clubs for Children with Special Gifts," *Educational Method*, XVIII (October, 1938), 21-26.
Tells how pupils talented in music, writing, art, etc., were brought together from several elementary schools in Washington, D.C., to form clubs of the special-interest nature. Describes the work that they did and gives the results of a study of the traits of these pupils.
330. HAUENSTEIN, MARGARET. "The First National Student Congress," *School Activities*, X (October, 1938), 61-62.
A brief account of the organization and the activities of the congress which was instituted as an annual event in connection with the meeting at Wooster, Ohio, of the National Forensic League.
331. HERMON, HELEN. "I Serve: The Junior Red Cross Poster Project," *Baltimore Bulletin of Education*, XVI (May-June, 1938), 44-47.
Describes the plan, the activities initiated, and the educational values that proceeded from a contest which enlisted the participation of 244 pupils in twelve high schools of Baltimore.
332. HOLT, HARVEY J. "Pupil Participation in California High Schools," *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals*, XXII (January, 1938), 43-45.
Tells briefly how pupils in the Abraham Lincoln High School of Los Angeles took part in the conduct of many character-building agencies in the city through the activities of the Community Contact Council.
333. HUNT, R. L. "Madison High's Co-ordinated Class Activity Program," *Clearing House*, XII (February, 1938), 362-65.
Describes a varied program of activities, the administrative provisions that facilitated it, the reaction of pupils toward it, and its bearing on scholarship over a two-year period.
334. JARVIE, L. L. "Students Take Part in Policy Making," *Clearing House*, XIII (December, 1938), 223-25.
A discussion of the part played by students of the Rochester (New York) Athenaeum and Mechanics Institute in formulating and administering school policies, most notably in the case of the school assembly.

335. JOHNSON, BESS E. "An Evaluation of Normal-School Sororities," *Journal of Experimental Education*, VII (September, 1938), 49-54.
Compares groups of 100 and 135 sorority alumnae at Geneseo, New York, with similar groups of non-sorority alumnae. Items considered are scholastic record and participation in student activities, views on factors affecting selection of members, scholastic and social advantages, value of sorority houses, and costs. Summarizes previous studies on these questions.
336. JOHNSTON, EDGAR G. (Chairman). "Report of the Committee on Pupil Activities," *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals*, XXII (May, 1938), 42-48.
Includes a brief historical statement of the interest taken by the Department of Secondary-School Principals in the subject of pupil activities, basic principles that should underlie department policy, and recommended policies relating to national organizations sponsoring activities, community agencies, contests, financing, relation to state associations, and use of department publications. The report is offered for criticism and discussion.
337. JONES, ARTHUR J. *The Education of Youth for Leadership*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938. Pp. xx+246.
A comprehensive and systematic survey of the field, including the nature of leadership, training for leadership in other times and countries, and an outline of the elements of a program for leadership training in American schools.
338. KRAUSE, MARION A. "A Thrift Bank's Follow Through," *Baltimore Bulletin of Education*, XVI (May-June, 1938), 42-43.
Presents data on the extent to which school-bank deposits made in the Southern High School of Baltimore were kept open over periods of several years and discusses the educational significance of the large number of closed accounts.
339. LESSER, EDWARD J. "A Boys' Club Study: The Good Will Club of Hartford, Connecticut," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, XII (October, 1938), 87-92.
A valuable investigation of a substantial, old, endowed organization. Studies the kinds of boys reached, the traits of members, their records in school and in juvenile court, the geographical area covered, ability and performance of the supervisory staff, activities carried on, and the effects of activities on members.
340. MCKOWN, HARRY C. *Activities in the Elementary School*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938. Pp. xx+474.
A comprehensive and practical manual for the use of principals and teachers in schools of all sizes. Treats a wide variety of activities and provides an abundance of theoretical material to aid in understanding them.
341. MILLER, CARROLL H. "Value of Certain Standard Tests for a Study of Dramatic Talent," *Journal of Social Psychology*, IX (November, 1938), 437-49.

The scores of fifty-nine upper-class high-school boys and girls on several intelligence, vocabulary, and personality tests are compared with their ratings in "ability in dramatic interpretation" by coaches of dramatic clubs.

342. O'BRIEN, LEONARD G. "A Study of Relationship between Ability and Grades of Pupils in Montrose High School and Susquehanna High School and Their Participation in Extra-curricular Activities," *Abstracts of Studies in Education at Pennsylvania State College*, Part VIII, pp. 41-42. Pennsylvania State College Studies in Education, No. 21. State College, Pennsylvania: Pennsylvania State College, 1938.

Statistical analysis of data arranged by grade in school and by number of activities participated in.

343. PIERCE, PAUL R. "Reorganizing Extra-curriculum Activities—A High-School Program," *School Review*, XLVI (February, 1938), 118-27.

Develops five basic principles which should govern the selection of pupil experience in the extra-curriculum and shows how these principles were worked out in a reorganized program at the Wells High School of Chicago.

344. PORTER, HENRY C. "The Origin and Development of Extra-curricular Activities," *School Activities*, X (December, 1938), 147-48, 168-70.

Supplies an account of the history of extra-curriculum activities by repeating closely the accounts given in certain well-known textbooks.

345. "A 'Presidents Club' Puts Out a Guide to Club Activity," *School Review*, XLVI (March, 1938), 163.

A brief description of an effort to train the chief officers of student organizations at the Evander Childs High School of New York City.

346. PROSCH, FREDERICK. "Participation in Non-required Activities by Physical Education Major Students," *Research Quarterly of the American Association for Health and Physical Education*, IX (October, 1938), 59-61.

A statistical study of the extent to which Junior and Senior students at Temple University voluntarily engaged in athletic and nonathletic activities, including school and extra-school organizations.

347. REALS, WILLIS H. "Leadership in the High School," *School Review*, XLVI (September, 1938), 523-31.

Compares thirty-seven boy and girl leaders of the graduating classes of eight schools in Missouri, Oklahoma, and Illinois, selected on the basis of teacher judgment, with thirty-seven non-leaders paired with the former with regard to curriculum, sex, age, scholarship, and intelligence. Fourteen personal characteristics and elements of home environment, measured largely by the method of interviews, are compared. Gives fifteen references to leadership studies.

348. REMMLEIN, MADELINE KINTER. "Analysis of Leaders among High School Seniors," *Journal of Experimental Education*, VI (June, 1938), 413-22.

Compares 196 non-office-holders with 587 office-holders and the upper, lower, and two middle quarters of the office-holders, separated by sex, with respect to seven traits, such as socio-economic status, intelligence quotient, scholarship, and dominance. Presents a brief but excellent review of previous leadership studies and raises important questions, such as the generality of leadership traits.

349. RUTLEDGE, E. ELIZABETH. "A Speech Arts Club Evaluation," *School Activities*, X (December, 1938), 158-60.

A brief account of the use of a general-functions club as the first step in initiating extra-curriculum activities in a small high school.

350. SCHWEHN, HILDA M. "The Educational Responsibilities outside the Classroom of Women Instructors of Physical Education in the State of Indiana," *Research Quarterly of the American Association for Health and Physical Education*, IX (December, 1938), 81-96.

A valuable statistical report of the answers of 212 teachers in large and small schools to questions concerning, among other things, supervisory duties in connection with extra-curriculum activities. On the basis of the findings, gives recommendations for teacher-training institutions.

351. SEGEL, DAVID, and PROFFITT, MARIS M. *Some Factors in the Adjustment of College Students*. Project in Research in Universities. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 12, 1937. Pp. vi+50.

Brief reports of data from Syracuse University, Massachusetts State College, and the University of Washington on the relation between college marks and participation in various extra-curriculum activities in high school.

352. SHANNON, J. R. "Scores in English of High-School Athletes and Non-athletes," *School Review*, XLVI (February, 1938), 128-30.

Compares scores made on standard English and intelligence tests by 144 high-school letter men with those of 211 non-letter men, all of whom were Freshmen at Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Indiana.

353. SHARMAN, JACKSON R. "Camping, A School Responsibility," *Phi Delta Kappan*, XXI (December, 1938), 116-18.

Discusses the educational values that can be contributed by local permanent outdoor camps and by travel camps and the plausibility of the conduct of such camps under the auspices of boards of education.

354. SIMPKINSON, NANCY J. "A New Kind of Spanish Club," *Modern Language Journal*, XXIII (December, 1938), 168-71.

Describes the purposes, the activities, and the achievements of a club at the Bennett Junior High School of Piqua, Ohio. The members are ninth-grade boys and girls who have never studied Spanish but who may do so in the high school.

355. SMITH, ENID S. "Evaluating the Club Program," *Education*, LIX (October, 1938), 99-103.

A helpful list of detailed questions under several heads, such as attitudes of members, efficiency of leadership, importance of projects, and records of work, which can be used to determine the worth of a club's work.

356. SNYDER, TROY A. "The School Carnival," *Clearing House*, XIII (November, 1938), 160-63.

Describes in detail plans, activities, co-operating groups, and values of the carnival worked out at the Harbor High School at Ashtabula, Ohio, which resulted in the raising of fairly large amounts of money.

357. STENIUS, ARTHUR. "And We Deserve the Blame," *English Journal*, XXVII (September, 1938), 580-86.

Discusses and gives reasons for the decline of forensic and publication activities in the high school and the diminished influence of teachers of English as sponsors.

358. SWAN, WILLIS A. "Our School Newspapers," *Phi Delta Kappan*, XX (January, 1938), 155-57.

A brief discussion of the publicity values to the school, the home, and the community of a well-managed school newspaper.

359. VANCE, CATHERINE S. *The Girl Reserve Movement of the Young Women's Christian Association*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 730. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937. Pp. x+184.

Using documents, observations of activities, interviews with secretaries, and a questionnaire to the leaders of clubs throughout the country, the author describes three periods of growth (1881-1918, 1918-26, and 1926-35) in the Girl Reserve movement. Shows differences in objectives and changes in methods.

360. WHITE, ROBERT, JR. "A Class in Leadership," *School Review*, XLVI (June, 1938), 448-52.

Describes a well-considered and promising effort at the Parker High School, Chicago, to give practical and intellectual training in leadership to a social-science class, the membership of which consisted of the officers of pupils' organizations that were possessed of legislative functions.

361. WYMAN, LILLIAN KENNEDY. "Meeting the Challenge of the Times," *School Activities*, IX (May, 1938), 395-96, 442.

An informative discussion of the necessity of effectively managing student government in the schools with a view to developing in youth understanding and skill of the sort that fits the principles of a democratic society.

362. ZACHAR, IRWIN J. "Activities for the Class English Club," *English Journal*, XXVII (February, 1938), 123-27.

Describes many programs that can be produced by English clubs to motivate and supplement instruction in the classroom.

Educational Writings

*

REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

STATUS OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE IN CATHOLIC HIGH SCHOOLS.—Organized discussion of the need of guidance in Catholic secondary schools began around the turn of the century, when the National Catholic Educational Association meetings first brought together Catholic school teachers and administrators from all parts of the country. Practice in vocational guidance in Catholic high schools, as a group, has lagged far behind theory. This fact is brought out convincingly in a recent investigation¹ which is an important and opportune contribution, not only to the literature on guidance, but also to a growing body of factual data on practices in Catholic high schools.

That the practice of guidance dates back, at least, to early centuries of the Christian era is illustrated in a prologue which shows, dramatically, that the need for guidance and the duties of the counselor were foreshadowed in the Rule of St. Benedict.

In the first chapter is presented the problem: to trace historically the development of vocational guidance in Catholic secondary schools and to determine its present status, as revealed in answers to a questionnaire. In chapter ii the growth of the concept of vocational guidance during the decades of the present century is traced from an examination of the papers and the discussions in the annual conventions of the National Catholic Educational Association and also in educational conferences of a local nature. Related studies on vocational guidance in Catholic high schools are summarized in chapter iii. In chapter iv are presented the development of Catholic high schools and certain facts regarding their distribution, size, control, and organization. Comparisons are made with corresponding data for public schools. Results from questionnaires sent to 1,004 Catholic high schools, 61 per cent of such schools with enrolments of 25 or more pupils and representative of all having a student body of 25 or more, are given in chapter v. The data concern the number of schools offering vocational guidance, the techniques and the activities employed, the school grades in which guidance is offered, the officers and the time that they devote to guidance, and the training that they have received for personnel work. The presentation of the data would be more clear-cut were the question, "To what extent are techniques

¹ Sister M. Teresa Gertrude Murray, O.S.B., *Vocational Guidance in Catholic Secondary Schools: A Study of Development and Present Status*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 754. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. viii+164. \$1.60.

employed?" answered more fully in the case of some items. In the conclusions, presented in chapter vi, the point is made that, despite the keen interest of teachers and administrators, provisions for handling various phases of guidance are somewhat disappointing, especially with regard to definite objectives, dissemination of occupational information, co-ordination between schools and civic or community agencies, and adequate cumulative records. Chapter vii lists the Catholic colleges and universities offering courses in guidance. In the recommendations, submitted in chapter viii, a guidance program is outlined which is sane, practicable, and complete without being complex. Emphasis is placed on the necessity for the co-operation of all teachers and for the appointment of special guidance counselors in schools with enrolments of two hundred or more pupils.

A tracing of the development of the concept of guidance and a presentation of the status of guidance in Catholic high schools are valuable contributions of the study. Equally important, the book brings forcibly to the minds of teachers and administrators what is yet lacking for satisfactory guidance service, and it outlines a plan of procedure that should insure an effective program.

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RESEARCH IN FOREIGN LANGUAGES SHOWS MARKED INCREASE.—No single volume could serve more thoroughly to impress the generalist in education with the vigor and the scope of research in the modern foreign languages than Coleman and King's abstracts¹ of the 1,125 articles, theses, pamphlets, and books published between 1932 and 1937 in this country and abroad. It is not generally known among administrators that more research has been done in the field of foreign-language learning (prognosis, achievement-testing, methodology, psychology of language, etc.) than in any other field of the secondary curriculum. The publication of the second *Analytical Bibliography* for 1932-37 should do much to make conveniently available to superintendents, principals, directors of instruction, and teachers the gist of the best thinking that has been done in the field of curriculum and instruction in the foreign-language arts.

The excellent Table of Contents (divided into eleven major parts with subdivisions) and the Index of Authors make the 562-page volume exceedingly easy to use. The abstracts themselves are clear and concise and generally free from opinionated bias. Technical accuracy in the annotation of pages, dates, etc., naturally cannot reach perfection in a comprehensive work of this kind, but the percentage of typographical errors is probably within the usual allowance granted expert proofreaders.

¹ *An Analytical Bibliography of Modern Language Teaching*, Vol. II, 1932-1937. Compiled and edited for the Committee on Modern Languages by Algernon Coleman, with the assistance of Clara Breslove King. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1938. Pp. xviii+562. \$4.50.

Of general interest from the viewpoint of trends in foreign-language teaching are the following quotations from the Foreword: "As might be expected, the greatest harvest has again been in the field of materials and methods The reading objective . . . has held its place in the forefront of interest and experimental attention" (p. vi). Unfortunately this "forefront of interest and attention" has been limited almost exclusively to reading in the mechanical sense, with little or no regard for the primary purpose and function of reading—the communication of *content worth reading* in terms of the social and the cultural needs of students and of society. Skills developed without worthy purposes tend to function without purpose in life or not to function at all. To the generalist in education many of the research studies will appear superficial or functionless because of the very apparent lack of a significant frame of reference (in terms of educational principles and objectives) that characterizes foreign-language teaching in the United States today.

"Aside from other extensions of the field of interest [such as syntax lists], the present volume contains a number of items relative to the teaching of English to pupils of other speech" (p. vi). The Committee on Modern Languages, under whose auspices the *Bibliography* is published, was enlarged in April, 1938, to represent the extension of its program to the teaching of English to non-English-speaking persons.

WALTER V. KAULFERS

Stanford University

THREE STUDIES OF THE ADOLESCENT.—Within the past year three important monographs on the adolescent period have been published by the Society for Research in Child Development of the National Research Council. The first of these,¹ by Dearborn, Rothney, and Shuttleworth, gives data from the Harvard Growth Study on "the physical measurements and some of the mental-test findings of 1,553 individuals with fairly complete measurements over the twelve-year period" beginning with entrance to the first grade, "in order to make them available to other students of the growth and development of school children" (p. 1). An annotated bibliography of Harvard Growth Studies (published and unpublished) includes seventy-five titles. The volume should prove of value to persons interested in using the seriatim measurements for further investigation of growth and development during childhood and adolescence.

*A Handbook of Methods for the Study of Adolescent Children*² is divided into

¹ Walter F. Dearborn, John W. M. Rothney, and Frank K. Shuttleworth, *Data on the Growth of Public School Children (From the Materials of the Harvard Growth Study)*. Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, Vol. III, No. 1 (Serial No. 14). Washington: Society for Research in Child Development, National Research Council, 1938. Pp. 136.

² William Walter Greulich, Harry G. Day, Sander E. Lachman, John B. Wolfe, and Frank K. Shuttleworth, *A Handbook of Methods for the Study of Adolescent Children*. Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, Vol. III, No. 2 (Serial

five parts. Part I, "Some Anatomical Aspects," by Greulich, includes chapters on (1) anthropometry, (2) skeletal development, (3) skin and associated structures, and (4) some genital changes associated with puberty. Part II, "Some Biochemical and Physiological Aspects," by Day, comprises chapters on (1) skin and associated structures, (2) blood, (3) respiration and energy metabolism, (4) digestive organs and functions, (5) urine and feces. Part III, "Some Medical and Clinical Aspects," by Lachman, in five chapters discusses (1) the skin and its appendages, (2) dentition, (3) circulation, (4) posture, and (5) physical-fitness tests. Part IV, "Some Psychological Aspects," by Wolfe, has eight chapters on (1) behavioral aspects of the skin and its accessories, (2) sensory phenomena, (3) perception and imagination, (4) motor performances, (5) intelligence and educational achievement, (6) special abilities, (7) sexual behavior, and (8) personal and social reactions. Part V, "Problems Not Involving Direct Measurements of Children," by Shuttleworth, contains three chapters on (1) measurable aspects of the environment, (2) the influence of hereditary and environmental differences, and (3) statistical considerations. The volume contains ten tables and thirty figures. The material is well organized and clearly presented. The general arrangement is to set forth important facts on a topic, the methods in use (with a critique of both facts and methods), and citation of the literature on the topic. Workers will find the bibliography on each topic more serviceable than a general or combined bibliography on all topics at the end of a chapter. The reviewer does not feel competent to pass judgment on Part II, on biochemical and physiological aspects, but, by applying several criteria, judges it to be an excellent piece of work. A few noteworthy omissions in Part IV should be mentioned. The Terman-Merrill Revision of the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test appeared in 1937, but is not mentioned; nor is mention made of the Otis Quick-scoring Mental Ability Tests although they were published before the Terman-Merrill Revision. In chapter xxii scoring keys for thirty occupations for the Strong Vocational Interest Test for men are mentioned, but no reference is made to the number of keys available for the test for women. No index is given, but a good analytic table of contents makes the material in the volume readily accessible. This *Handbook of Methods* is distinctly valuable for workers interested in studying adolescence.

Shuttleworth, in *The Adolescent Period: A Graphic and Pictorial Atlas*,² has selected from a wide range of sources "samples of the more important facts concerning adolescents and adolescent development which are suitable for graphical and pictorial representation" (p. i) and presents them in 458 figures and photo-

No. 15). Washington: Society for Research in Child Development, National Research Council, 1938. Pp. xviii+406.

² Frank K. Shuttleworth, *The Adolescent Period: A Graphic and Pictorial Atlas*. Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, Vol. III, No. 3 (Serial No. 16). Washington: Society for Research in Child Development, National Research Council, 1938. Pp. vi+246.

graphs. The following topics are treated: (1) introductory statistics; (2) physical growth; (3) physical development and differentiation; (4) physiological functions; (5) sexual maturation (a total of seventy-one figures are given on this topic, included in the first eighteen of which are fifty-nine photographs showing sexual maturation of both sexes at various ages from ten to eighteen years); (6) health; (7) intelligence; (8) education; (9) special abilities, plays and games, interest and attitudes; (10) behavior maladjustments; (11) occupational adjustments; (12) sex adjustments; (13) differential urban influences; and (14) major activities for the ages from ten to twenty-four. Although the figures are classified into these fourteen divisions, frequent cross-references in the detailed Table of Contents indicate pertinent figures in other divisions. The figures are drawn to bring out clearly the significance of the facts on which they are based, and nearly two hundred of them are original drawings prepared especially for this volume. The exact bibliographic reference is given for each figure. The material is well selected and well organized and is presented clearly and concisely. The volume should prove especially valuable to instructors offering courses in adolescent development, as well as to college and university students and teachers in secondary schools who are interested in problems of the adolescent period.

FOWLER D. BROOKS

DePauw University

A WIDE-SCOPE TEXTBOOK IN RETAILING.—Planned as a basic textbook for introductory retailing courses in secondary schools, junior colleges, and vocational schools, the opening chapters of a new textbook in retailing¹ review briefly the origin and the development of retailing and the various types of retail stores. Beginning with store location and layout in chapter iii, various technical aspects of retailing are taken up, including store organization, buying, receiving and marketing, pricing, stock turnover, and merchandise control. Then follow discussions of retail advertising, window and store display, types of customers, and the sales process. Three chapters are devoted to the study of merchandise materials, fashions, and customer service. The concluding chapters are given over to a study of personnel factors and relationships, store finance and accounting, credits and collections, and current trends in retailing.

Throughout the book reference is made to problems and practices in both small and large stores, with a major emphasis on procedures most applicable to department stores. Because of the wide scope of topics covered, the explanations and the discussions on many points are necessarily limited and leave much for the instructor to supply. For supplementary reading on specific topics, a variety of reference readings are suggested at the close of each chapter and in a comprehensive bibliography included as an appendix.

¹ G. Henry Richert, *Retailing: Principles and Practices of Retail Buying, Advertising, Selling, and Management*. New York: Gregg Publishing Co., 1938. Pp. xvi+432. \$2.00.

Teaching devices which will be appreciated by the busy instructor are the well-planned word and phrase studies, questions and points for discussion, and problems and projects included for use with each chapter topic. A large number of illustrations, some of which seem too small in size to be most effective, depict various aspects of retail-store operation. A most interesting feature is a series of brief biographies and portraits of outstanding merchants who have contributed to the development of modern retailing.

The teaching of retailing in secondary schools is relatively new, and it is, therefore, difficult to suggest by implication or comparison what is the most suitable teaching content. In general, this book gives the impression of providing access to a wealth of instructional materials which will be most effective in the hands of a competent teacher experienced in retailing practices.

ERNEST A. ZELLIOT

Public Schools
Des Moines, Iowa

A SUCCESSFUL PRESENTATION OF HIGH-SCHOOL PHYSICS.—There appears to be a growing tendency for several authors to collaborate in the production of high-school textbooks. A recent publication which exemplifies this tendency is a book called *Physics of Today*.¹ One of the authors is a professor of physics in an institute of technology, one is a professor of science in a state teachers' college, and one is chairman of the committee on science in a large city school system. One might well expect such a trio, when combining their varied talents, training, and experience, to produce a book which is characterized by academic accuracy and good pedagogical features. The reviewer's judgment is that the authors of *Physics of Today* have succeeded in large measure in these respects.

The authors state that their objective is to present the fundamental laws and principles of physics in a simple, brief, and interesting way. The inductive or experimental method of approach is employed consistently. First, a question is asked; next, an experiment is proposed to throw light on the question; and, third, by the processes of induction or scientific thinking from specific observations to generalized statement of fact, the laws or principles of physics are developed.

The book is divided into ten major units. These cover the usual subdivisions of the subject. Three chapters are devoted to the first unit on mechanics. One chapter is given to each of the units numbered, respectively, as follows: (2) forces; (3) motion; (4) gravitation; (5) work, energy, and power; and (6) machinery. Four chapters are devoted to the unit on heat, two to sound, four to light, and five to electricity and magnetism. Each unit is preceded by a brief preview, and each chapter is introduced by a few stimulating questions. At every few pages throughout the book thought-provoking exercises are pre-

¹ John A. Clark, Frederick Russell Gorton, and Francis W. Sears, *Physics of Today*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1938. Pp. vi+632+x. \$1.80.

sented. Some of these exercises are mathematical problems, but many are not. Some of the more difficult items are starred to indicate that they may be employed as honors work for superior students. Each chapter is concluded with a summary. At the end of each unit one or more objective tests are provided.

The mechanical features of the book are excellent. It is attractively and durably bound. Paper and printing are of fine quality. It is copiously illustrated with a variety of diagrams, pictures, and portraits. The colored plates are well executed. The vocabulary and the language usage appear to be adapted to the abilities of high-school pupils. While the needs of college-preparatory students have not been neglected, much attention has been given to the practical and functional aspects of the subject which should be emphasized for non-college-preparatory students.

The reviewer has been impressed by the fact that the textbooks in education and psychology which have been produced by the publishers of *Physics of Today* have almost invariably contained excellent bibliographies; in fact, they have tended to be models in this respect. It seems a bit strange, therefore, to find no supplementary reading references in the book under consideration. It would seem that high-school pupils should begin to read science magazines, government bulletins, and scientific books other than textbooks. Both teachers and pupils would be aided in locating such material and perhaps pupils would be stimulated to do much voluntary reading if suggestions for such reading were included in their textbook. The authors have adopted many features of the Morrisonian unit plan of teaching. One may, perhaps, be pardoned for wondering why they have not gone farther and outlined an abundance of assimilative material to insure the thorough and complete learning which is the great objective of the Morrisonian method. One may hope that the authors have provided topical reading lists in an accompanying manual or workbook. If they have done so, this criticism of the textbook loses some of its force, but one might still contend that reading references should appear in the textbook in close relation to the treatment of the various units or topics. *Physics of Today* is not alone in its omission of reading references (in fact, this weakness is common in high-school textbooks), but, to the reviewer at least, this omission appears to constitute the book's most serious weakness.

The reviewer is aware that many teachers of high-school physics feel that physics is such a heavy subject, that the course contains so much material, as to leave little time for outside reading. For such teachers *Physics of Today* should prove to be a very acceptable textbook. On the other hand, there are a growing number of teachers who feel that all science courses should serve to introduce pupils to the great field of scientific literature and to promote an interest in future leisure-time reading in this area.

R. J. BRADLEY

Macalester College
St. Paul, Minnesota

A TEXTBOOK SCIENTIFICALLY PREPARED.—L. J. O'Rourke, who is director of research in personnel administration of the United States Civil Service Commission and who was formerly connected with the University of Wisconsin, with Cornell University, and with Teachers College, Columbia University, is the author of a new textbook¹ in the field of government and citizenship designed for use in the secondary school. Into this book has gone a large amount of practical experimentation. It is built around the civics club. This type of organization has been used for many years by junior high school teachers, usually as an extra-curriculum activity and sometimes in relation to classroom work. With proper management this plan has produced fine results. Now the civics club is formally made the center of study for learning activities.

Into the preparation of this book have gone five years of labor in connection with the Civics Research Institute. Something like twenty-five thousand members of civics clubs and their teachers have taken part in experimental studies testing out various procedures used in this book. One hundred and fifty superintendents of schools, constituting the National Advisory Council of the Civics Research Institute, have assisted in this collaboration. The social-behavior material contained in this book was prepared by the author in connection with the Institute of Educational Research at Teachers College, Columbia University. Here is a book, then, which in a more than ordinary degree embodies tried procedures of the very latest type.

This textbook is divided into six parts. Each part is preceded by a short story about boys and girls whose activities are typical of the material to be studied in that section of the book. Thus the first part, entitled "Your Community and What It Does for You," begins with a story concerning "A Civics Club in Action," which describes an actual club that attained unusual success. Part IV begins with the story of how the civics dinner club started, again a description of the activities of a successful and forward-looking club.

The first section of the book deals with local community problems, principally municipal in nature, including health, fire, education, recreation, property rights, and accidents. Part II discusses the organization and the functions of government, principally state and national governments, although one chapter describes local government and another chapter deals with foreign relations. This chapter describes the consular and the diplomatic services; briefly discusses international law; and devotes space to the League of Nations, the Pan American Union, and the now almost forgotten Kellogg-Briand Peace Pact. Part III is devoted to taxation and the spending of government money. Part IV describes transportation, communication, production, exchange, the problems of businessmen, and the problems of consumers. This section, then, is principally concerned with ideas connected with economics, in contrast with the earlier sections, which are concerned chiefly with civics. Part V discusses problems of

¹ L. J. O'Rourke, *You and Your Community*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1938. Pp. xxviii+692+xxii. \$1.84.

employment, the relations of capital and labor, conservation of natural resources, and the question of the standard of living, presenting material which is, in part, sociological. The last section of the book contains three chapters which discuss briefly various occupations, their relative opportunities, advantages, and disadvantages.

The textbook closes with an appendix including the Constitution of the United States and an index. The author also is able to acknowledge the receipt of advice and counsel in connection with preparation of the book from a number of persons whose names are distinguished in the field of social studies and education. The reviewer noticed particularly the names of Edgar B. Wesley, of the University of Minnesota, at one time president of the National Council of the Social Studies, Charles H. Judd, George F. Zook, and Edward L. Thorndike.

This textbook is well illustrated, nearly every other page containing some kind of cut, graph, or diagram. The illustrations are of the most modern type and include new material which has never been used before. The illustrations are almost entirely of the action type, many of them dealing with events that have occurred only recently. Graphs are largely of the semipictorial type, and cartoons are also used. At the end of each chapter are to be found materials dealing with methodology. Sections presented include problems, topics for oral or written reports, and a bibliography. Without question, this publication is an exceptionally fine, useful book.

D. S. BRAINARD

State Teachers College
St. Cloud, Minnesota

AMERICAN GOVERNMENT IN THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL.—The problem of what should be included in senior high school civics and how it should be organized is one that must be faced by every textbook-writer and every teacher. That these are far from settled questions is clear from the wide differences among the recent textbooks in the field. *Our Government Today*¹ combines the traditional historical approach with the more recently popularized practice of grouping the concepts on the organization of government about its functions (judicial, legislative, and administrative) rather than about the governmental divisions (federal, state, and local). This new book is distinctive even here in that its approach is first made through the judicial rather than the legislative functions. The problem of what to include and what to exclude has been met by the usual inclusion of sections on international relations, the means of popular control of government, the less traditional topics of government and economic interests, and social welfare. In the latter category are chapters on agriculture, conservation, transportation and communication, labor, education, safety and health, and social security. These unquestionably belong in the

¹ William Backus Guitteau and Edna McCaull Bohlman, *Our Government Today*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1938. Pp. xii+662+lxvi. \$1.80.

social-studies program, but, where the civics course is followed or is preceded by courses in economics or social problems, they represent possibilities of substantial overlapping of content—a condition that is common to most recent textbooks in the field.

The forty chapters of the book are grouped into fourteen units. Each unit is introduced by a brief summary preview. Each chapter is followed, first, by a group of references, chiefly to college and high-school textbooks; then, by a series of factual questions on the chapter; and, finally, by a list of exercises and activities, which suggests specific outlines, comparative charts and tables, floor talks, debates, and compositions. The illustrations consist of photographs of governmental activities and political instruments, as well as diagrams of political structures, maps, charts, and graphs. There are the usual appendix and index.

The most commendable features of the presentation in the book are the attention devoted to innovations in the form of governmental organization, the practice of comparing the processes of the government of the United States with those of other democratic governments, and the high degree of accuracy of statement achieved in the historical and the descriptive passages. The least commendable feature is that, in spite of careful statements of both sides of several controversial problems, the presentations in several instances are tendentious enough to carry acceptance of the point of view of the authors. The most notable of these are the desirability of "judicial supremacy"; an anti-C.I.O., if not an anti-organized labor, slant; and a plea for the restriction of immigration from the American nations. In addition, there are the rather unrealistic presentations of the role of propaganda in the formation of public opinion and of American foreign policy that are usually found in high-school classes in civics. With these exceptions, the book is a better-than-average textbook for the high school.

ELMER ELLIS

University of Missouri

A TEXTBOOK ON THE EFFECT OF SOCIAL LIFE ON PERSONALITY.—The authors of a recent book¹ have attempted to achieve a functional approach to the study of social problems at the secondary-school level.

In portraying the effect of social life on personality, they have used the study of institutions, including the family, the community, play, education, work, art, and religion, and have disregarded traditional subject boundary lines. Thus their volume adds to the increasing body of literature for use in connection with fused courses in social studies.

The unit type of organization has been adopted and logically developed throughout the entire book. The authors state that the units have been tested in secondary-school classes and have been further developed as a result of this

¹ Emory S. Bogardus and Robert H. Lewis, *Social Life and Personality*. New York: Silver Burdett Co., 1938. Pp. x+582. \$1.80.

preliminary testing. The material included is divided into three parts: "Nature of Personality," "Types of Social Life," and "Social Control and Adjustment." Part I consists of one unit entitled "Personality in the Making." Part II is organized into seven units, dealing with "Family Life and Welfare," "Play and Recreation," "Education for Social Life," "Industry and Economic Life," "Community Life and Types," "Religion as a Social Institution," and "Art and Social Harmony." Part III includes two units, the first of which is devoted to "Social Control" and the second to "Social Adjustment."

This volume is organized around problems which are practical for youth today. Included are excellent materials based on the latest available statistics pertinent to the topics discussed. The range of these topics, however, is so wide that an adequate treatment in a single volume is exceedingly difficult. Largely because of the great range of topics, the book suffers a serious lack of a situational approach and a lack of sufficient developmental material to make clear a number of generalizations presented. This same range of topics necessitated omission of certain items which one would normally expect to find. For example, in a discussion of attitudes in relation to personality, some consideration of stereotypes would seem appropriate, but it is omitted in the present work. Similarly the unit on the community seems inadequate, particularly in view of the obvious value of the use of the community as a laboratory for the study of social problems.

The teaching aids included are excellent. The illustrations are interesting, attractive, and carefully selected to illustrate points presented in the text. Numerous tables and charts, many of the pictorial type, present the latest available statistics on current issues. The teaching aids at the end of each unit contain vocabulary lists, activities for pupils, thought questions, case studies, and reading lists. These aids are so extensive that an average of nine pages is devoted to aids on each unit, and many of the activities, case studies, and readings suggested help to compensate for the deficiencies noted above.

This book should prove a valuable addition to the literature available for teaching social studies in secondary schools. It would be particularly useful in classroom libraries to provide an excellent reference source for new materials in usable form on many topics.

ROY A. PRICE

Syracuse University



CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY AND PRACTICE

BORGESON, GERTRUDE M. *Techniques Used by the Teacher during the Nursery School Luncheon Period*. Child Development Monographs, No. 24. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. xiv+214. \$2.35.

- BRUCE, WILLIAM. *Principles of Democratic Education: A Functional Approach to Fundamental Problems of Teaching*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1939. Pp. xiv+382. \$2.50.
- CHISHOLM, LESLIE L. *The Shifting of Federal Taxes and Its Implications for the Public Schools*. Journal of Experimental Education Research Monograph, No. 1. Madison, Wisconsin: Journal of Experimental Education, 1939. Pp. 84.
- Cooperation: Principles and Practices*. Eleventh Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction. Washington: Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association, 1939. Pp. x+244.
- CULBERT, JANE F., and SMITH, HELEN R. *Counseling Young Workers*. New York: Vocational Service for Juniors (95 Madison Avenue), 1939. Pp. xii+212.
- EVANS, ROBERT O. *Practices, Trends, and Issues in Reporting to Parents on the Welfare of the Child in School: Principles upon Which an Effective Program May Be Built*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. vi+98. \$1.05.
- FREEMAN, FRANK N. *Mental Tests: Their History, Principles & Applications*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1939 (revised). Pp. x+460. \$2.50.
- From School to College: A Study of the Transition Experience*. Conducted by Lincoln B. Hale, in co-operation with D. W. Bailey, G. H. Menke, D. DeK. Rugh, and G. E. Schlessler. Yale Studies in Religious Education, XI. New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press, 1939. Pp. xxiv+446. \$3.50.
- The Implications of Research for the Classroom Teacher*. Joint Yearbook of the American Educational Research Association and the Department of Classroom Teachers. Washington: National Education Association, 1939. Pp. 318. \$1.00.
- MCALL, WILLIAM A. *Measurement*. A revision of *How To Measure in Education*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1939. Pp. xvi+536. \$4.00.
- MALLER, JULIUS B. *School and Community: A Study of the Demographic and Economic Background of Education in the State of New York*. The Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938. Pp. xiv+360. \$3.50.
- MAXWELL, C. R., and REUSSER, W. C. *Observation and Directed Teaching in Secondary Schools*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1939. Pp. xiv+434. \$2.00.
- REEDER, WARD G. *The Administration of Pupil Transportation*. Columbus, Ohio: Educators' Press, 1939. Pp. xii+200. \$2.50.

BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

The Barnes Dollar Sports Library: *Baseball* by Daniel E. Jessee, pp. 92; *Basketball* by Charles C. Murphy, pp. 94; *Football* by W. Glenn Killinger, pp. 142;

- Track and Field* by Ray M. Conger, pp. 94. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1939. \$1.00 each.
- BEAUCHAMP, WILBUR L., MAYFIELD, JOHN C., and WEST, JOE YOUNG. *Science Problems for the Junior High School*, Book II. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1939. Pp. xii+578. \$1.48.
- Congress at Work: A Graphic Story of How Our Laws Are Made and of the Men Who Make Them*. Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania: Scholastic Corp. (Chamber of Commerce Building), 1939. Pp. 32. \$0.25.
- FEDDER, RUTH. *A Girl Grows Up*. New York: Whittlesey House, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1939. Pp. xx+236. \$1.24.
- GREENAN, JOHN T., and GATHANY, J. MADISON. *Units in World History: Development of Modern Europe*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1939 (revised). Pp. xxii+858. \$2.32.
- LYNDE, CARLETON JOHN. *Science Experiences with Inexpensive Equipment*. Scranton, Pennsylvania: International Textbook Co., 1939. Pp. xiv+258. \$1.60.
- PAHLOW, EDWIN W. *Directed Studies in World History To Accompany "Man's Great Adventure"* (revised). Boston: Ginn & Co., 1939. Pp. iv+128+tests. \$0.48.
- STOLPER, B. J. R. *The Group Poem: A Two-Day Unit in a New Sort of Verse*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. 98. \$1.00.
- THOMAS, CHARLES SWAIN; PAINE, MYRA ADELINE; and ENSWEILER, NELLE GLOVER. *Thought and Expression*, Book I. A Textbook Designed To Develop Better Habits of Thinking and Greater Skill in English Expression. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1939. Pp. viii+536. \$1.56.
- Watch Your P.Q. (Personality Quotient): An Anthology of Helpful Information, Biographical Sketches, and Tests for Modern Young People on Ways of Improving Their Personalities*. Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania: Scholastic Corp. (Chamber of Commerce Building), 1939. Pp. 32. \$0.25.
- WEAVER, ROBERT B. *Amusements and Sports in American Life*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939. Pp. xiv+196. \$1.00.
- WEST, MICHAEL, and BOND, OTTO F. *A Grouped-Frequency French Word List: Based on the "French Word Book" of Vander Beke*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939. Pp. xiv+118. \$1.00.
- WILLIAMSON, R. M., and BLACKHURST, J. H. "Safety: Home, Field, Street." Des Moines, Iowa: University Press, 1939. 26 posters, with instruction.
- YOUNG, JEREMIAH S., and BARTON, EDWIN M. *Growing in Citizenship*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1939. Pp. xx+822+lii. \$1.76.

PUBLICATIONS IN PAMPHLET FORM

- ARTZ, FREDERICK B. *L'Education technique en France au dix-huitième siècle (1700-1789)*. Paris, France: Librairie Félix Alcan (108, Boulevard Saint-Germain), 1939. Pp. 52.

- CAMPBELL, DOAK S., BAIR, FREDERICK H., and HARVEY, OSWALD L. *Educational Activities of the Works Progress Administration*. Advisory Committee on Education, Staff Study No. 14. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1939. Pp. xiv+186. \$0.25.
- Critical Analysis of Teacher Tenure Legislation*. Washington: Committee on Tenure, National Education Association, 1939. Pp. 32. \$0.25.
- CUFF, R. P. *A Guide to the Literary Reading of College Freshmen*. Boston: Chapman & Grimes, 1938. Pp. 64. \$0.50.
- MORT, PAUL R., CORNELL, F. G., and HINTON, NORMAN H. *What Should Our Schools Do? A Poll of Public Opinion on the School Program*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938.
- NATIONAL OCCUPATIONAL CONFERENCE. *An Appraisal and Abstract of Available Literature on: The Occupation of the Bricklayer*, pp. 8; *The Occupation of the Butcher*, pp. 10; *The Occupation of the Dentist*, pp. 12; *The Occupation of the Sheet Metal Worker*, pp. 8; *The Occupation of the Veterinarian*, pp. 10. New York: National Occupational Conference (551 Fifth Avenue), 1938 and 1939. \$0.10 each.
- Oral English for Secondary Schools*. Bulletin 283. Harrisburg, Pennsylvania: State Department of Public Instruction, 1939. Pp. 14.
- Our Taxes—and What They Buy*. Public Affairs Pamphlets, No. 28. New York: Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 1939. Pp. 32. \$0.10.
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